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The NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

Boards of Education and the North Central Association

Conference on Intercollegiate Athletics

Problems of Intercollegiate Athletics

Human Relations at the International Level

Human Relations at the Community Level

Challenges to Schools for Teaching Improved Family Relations

Improved Family Life for Secondary School Programs

Preparation of Teachers for Participation in Family Life Education

Legislative Needs for the Public Junior College

Use and Value of G.E.D. Tests

Standards for Private Schools in the Philippines

Fifty-seventh Annual Meeting of the Association

Palmer House, Chicago, March 31-April 4, 1952

Theme: "Education: Its Contribution to the American Way of Life."

THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY

*The Official Organ of the North Central Association of Colleges
and Secondary Schools*

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ASSOCIATION NOTES AND EDITORIAL COMMENTS

THE HIGH SCHOOL LOOKS AT COLLEGE ATHLETICS

AGAIN the attention of the readers of THE QUARTERLY is directed to the work of the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics. Those who follow the activities of the Association with some care will remember that in these columns announcement was made last October of the creation of the above committee including the names of the men who compose it. At that time it was pointed out that the high caliber of these individuals guarantees a constructive approach to the tangled problems of competitive athletics in colleges and secondary schools. Although their commission naturally does not extend beyond the geographical boundaries of North Central territory, the national ramifications of their problem have already focused the attention of prominent persons in non-North Central areas upon their work. Evidence of this fact appears in the very brief account of the December conference in Chicago which Dean J. B. Edmonson, chairman, released for publication in this issue of THE QUARTERLY.

The Edmonson article emphasizes a statement of problems prepared by Charles A. Semler and his committee, all of whom are footnoted in the article in question; namely, "Problems of Intercollegiate Athletics as They Affect Secondary Schools." Probably no more competent or interested individual than Mr. Semler could have

been found to direct the deliberations of this committee. All of his fellow high school principals in Michigan recognize his, by now, permanent and discriminating interest in all aspects of interscholastic athletics which led to his election to the presidency of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations. From the eminence of this important office, no idle words flowed into the statement of problems cited above.

We are given to understand that the basic proposals of the Semler committee aroused keen interest at the Chicago conference, continuing from the general session into the group discussions in the afternoon. As a result, the Edmonson committee has made arrangements to follow up a conference action to send copies of these proposals to each higher institution in the Association and to each of the nineteen State Chairmen for further attention.

Once more is manifest the advantage of a closely articulated Association in the handling of important issues. Although the committee appointed by the American Council on Education to clean up athletics has caught the headlines of a national press, it is quite likely that the very scope of its geographical assignment and the heterogeneous conditions which it must console somehow, threaten its eventual success. Thus far the "family feeling," the "We are all in this together" attitude so characteristic of the North Central Association has not been ap-

parent in the news releases about the activities of the Council's committee.

HARLAN C. KOCH

NEW RESEARCH PROJECTS PLANNED
BY THE COOPERATING COMMITTEE
ON RESEARCH

THE COOPERATING COMMITTEE on Research, which is one of the five committees of the Commission on Secondary Schools, has undertaken the development of several new projects. Brief descriptions follow.

G.E.D. Tests.—Continuing criticism of the practices in the use of the General Education Development Tests and problems and issues arising from the emergency in Korea led the Administrative Committee of the Commission on Secondary Schools to request that a study be made of the practices in the use of the Tests and of the implications concerning their future use. Mr. H. Pat Wardlaw of the Missouri State Department of Education has accepted the responsibility for conducting this study. A questionnaire has been distributed to State Departments of Education and other agencies or persons concerned with the use of the Tests. Excellent returns to the questionnaire have been received and the analysis of the data will be completed in the near future.¹

High-school librarian.—The Committee on the High-School Librarian made its report in March, 1950. This report dealt almost entirely with proposals for changes in the standards for a high-school librarian. It was the belief of the Committee on Cooperation in Research that before any further changes in standards are made that there should be a more fundamental study dealing with two problems: 1. What should be the nature of the work of the school librarian? 2. What should

be the education of the librarian for the work he should undertake? The Administrative Committee agreed with this point of view and consequently it is referring this problem to the Commission on Research and Service for a more complete investigation.

High-school summer sessions.—In November, 1949, the Administrative Committee requested that the Committee on Cooperation in Research institute a study of high-school summer sessions based on the returns from Form C for 1948. Mr. Stephen Romine, of the University of Colorado, accepted the responsibility for making this study. A preliminary report was made to the State Chairmen at their meeting in Urbana, Illinois, on October 8-9, 1950. The final report will be published in an early issue of *The North Central Association Quarterly*.

High school-college relations.—The Committee on High School-College Relations which was inaugurated as the result of proposals by the Committee on Cooperation in Research has continued its activities during the past year. Its most notable accomplishment has been an analysis of the literature in this area which was published in the January, 1951, issue of *The North Central Association Quarterly*.

In concluding this report, it seems appropriate to note that Dr. D. H. Eikenberry who served with distinction on this Committee from its inception found it necessary to resign because of ill health. Dr. Leon Waskin, of the Michigan State Department of Education, was chosen by the Administrative Committee to serve the unexpired term of office.

CHARLES W. BOARDMAN

CURRENT USE OF THE EVALUATIVE CRITERIA

MANY NORTH CENTRAL schools assisted in the formation of the Cooper-

¹ Mr. Wardlaw's report is published in this number of *THE QUARTERLY*.—EDITOR.

tive Study of Secondary School Standards in 1933 and in developing the *Standards* published in 1940. Those who worked in the original study will remember that it grew out of a dissatisfaction with inflexible quantitative standards for accrediting member schools. The North Central Association can be proud of the major share the Association took in the establishment of the original study. It was truly a pioneering effort which is still having a marked effect on the procedure for accrediting schools throughout this and some other countries. Probably the most important of its uses has been to encourage a greater number of individual schools to evaluate their own strengths and weaknesses.

Experience gained from almost ten years of use in many schools indicated the desirability of a rather extensive revision to improve techniques and to incorporate new materials. This revision has taken two years and has been the work of many people serving under the direction of the General Committee in which group this Association has continuously held membership. The Criteria have been expanded to include many subject-matter fields not covered in the original study. More emphasis has been placed on self-evaluation. More aid and encouragement has been provided in the development of a philosophy adapted to the particular community served by a given school. Summaries have been simplified. Greater emphasis has been placed on qualitative ratings.

Since the *Revision* has been in print less than a year, it is too early to know just how effective the changes will be. It is interesting to know that the *Revision* has been well received by schools over the country. Up to February 1, 1951, the American Council on Education has filled over \$48,000 worth of orders and substantial reprinting is already necessary. Over 11,000 complete

copies and over 45,000 additional separate sections have been sold.

Up to the present time more use of the *Revision* has been made in the territory of the Middle Atlantic and Southern Associations than in the North Central, but reports from the twenty State Chairmen indicate that fifteen states require a complete evaluation for new schools seeking admission to the Association and that such an evaluation is urged in three of the four states not requiring it. In almost all cases where an evaluation is made a visiting committee is used, usually after a self-evaluation by the school. State chairmen report that so far as they know the *Revision* is not being used in any great number of member schools beyond securing the data incorporated in the Special Report forms. Opinion is equally divided as to whether the use of the Special Report forms encourages or discourages more extensive use of the Evaluative Criteria as such. The majority of the state committees recommend and explain the *Revision* in regional meetings and field visits to member schools. At least one state is considering the use of the Evaluative Criteria for "marginal" member schools.

Generally speaking, evidence received so far has shown a very favorable reception of the 1950 *Revision* of the Criteria. Dr. Carl Franzén, a member of the General Committee of the Cooperative Study from this Association, has been requested by the Committee to prepare material for securing information on the experiences of schools using the revised Criteria. He will doubtless be able to give a more comprehensive report at a subsequent meeting of this Association when the 1950 edition will have been in circulation over a sufficient period of time to gather more evidence.

HAROLD C. MARDIS

POLICIES, PROCEDURES, AND CRITERIA
OF THE STUDENT ACTIVITIES COM-
MITTEE OF THE MICHIGAN SEC-
ONDARY SCHOOLS ASSOCIATION¹

Policy I

Name

THE COMMITTEE shall be known as the Student Activities Committee of the Michigan Secondary Schools Association.

Policy II

Membership

The membership shall consist of four high school principals in addition to the chairman, with two appointed for two-year terms each (calendar years 1952 and 1953) and two appointed for one-year terms each (1952). After 1952, all appointments will be for two-year terms. These appointments are to be made by the president of the M.S.S.A. The membership shall also have two superintendents of schools, one to be appointed for two-year terms (1952 and 1953) and the second for a one-year term (1952). After 1952, the appointment of superintendents shall be for two-year terms. These appointments are to be made by the president of the Michigan Association of School Administrators.

Policy III

Scope of Committee Work

The committee shall review, approve, or disapprove contests, festivals, clinics, and conferences. The committee does not assume functions of ap-

¹ This statement was recently adopted by the Michigan Secondary Schools Association. It represents how one North Central state plans to handle activities of various sorts, including contests. The question of contests, in particular, has held the attention of the Commission on Secondary Schools for a long time. For the constructive reports of the Contest Committee, now the Activities Committee on contests, the reader should turn to THE QUARTERLY for April and October, 1951.—EDITOR.

proval or disapproval for activities conducted solely within any city or county. The committee will assist sponsors in developing activities that might make the best significant educational contribution.

Procedure I

Committee Meetings

The committee shall meet three times each year, in April, in September and preceding or during the annual meeting of the Michigan Secondary Schools Association. Special meetings may be called at the discretion of the chairman. All requests for approval of activities that are presented before the April and September meetings will be reviewed at these meetings.

Procedure II

Approval of Activities

Approval of an activity shall be for one year only. It shall be the duty of the chairman to mail application blanks to all sponsors on the approved activity list at least thirty days preceding the committee meeting at which the activity is to be reviewed.

Procedure III

Violations

In the event that an activity on the approved list is in violation of a criterion, the sponsor shall be invited to the next meeting of the committee. If the violation persists, the activity may not be approved.

Procedure IV

Publication of Approved Activities

All activities approved in the April and September meetings of the committee shall be published in the next issue of *News of the Week*, the *Michigan Secondary Schools Association Bulletin*, and the *Michigan Educational Journal*.

CONTRIBUTORS TO THIS ISSUE

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BOARDS OF EDUCATION AND THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

W. C. JACQUIN¹
Peoria, Illinois

IN DISCUSSING the general subject, "The North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools," it is rather difficult to decide, as an individual layman and school board member, just what my viewpoint and opinion is.

Not too many years ago our Board of Education had a unique experience. Our school system was visited by a representative of the North Central Association. Some defects, in this man's opinion, were found. Some of our members at that time endeavored to find what the situation really was, including the relationship of the North Central Association to our Board. We were told that it was none of our business and in due time we would learn. As a layman board member, how would you have reacted? Our Board still carries that scar.

In the spring of 1949, in my opinion as a result of numerous such incidents as ours, and the general attitude exhibited by the State Committee prior to the abolition of the High School Visitors Office at the University of Illinois, the Illinois School Board Association appointed a committee to investigate the relationships of the North Central Association with Boards of Education in Illinois. Seven school board members together with staff members of the Illinois School Board Association have served on that committee for two and a half years. During that time we have learned a great deal.

¹ *Editor's Note:* Mr. W. C. Jacquin is a member of the Board of Education at Peoria, Illinois, the second largest city in the State. He is also a member of the Co-ordinating Committee of the Illinois Association of School Boards with the Illinois State Committee of the North Central Association.

A number of joint meetings have been held with the Illinois State Committee of the North Central Association. We found the State Committee most co-operative, trying to find answers to the same problems as we were. It might be well to state at this point that the Illinois State Committee of the North Central Association made no excuses for its predecessors. They felt, and so did our committee, that our job was to analyze the present and do something for the future relationships between the North Central Association and the Boards of Education operating high schools.

Early in the series of meetings of the Joint Committee (as I shall now call it) it was discovered and agreed that whatever might be determined or recommended was going to be brought about by a common-sense approach on the part of the North Central Association or the Illinois School Board Association or both. There is no magic substitute for "Do the job yourself, instead of waiting for others to get around to doing it—maybe!" I might add that in my opinion this attitude has prevailed during the two and a half years' meetings of the two groups and still does.

One of the first things which became apparent to the Joint Committee was the astounding lack of information and understanding about what the North Central Association is, its purpose and how it operates. This shortcoming applied to both school boards and administrators, with more emphasis on the school administrators because it is part of their work to keep their Boards fully informed. Steps were taken to correct this basic defect in relationships

and are constantly being implemented further in an effort to bring conscious understanding of purpose, by all affected, of the work of the North Central Association. When this status becomes effective, much will have been accomplished, but it is a never ending task due to the turnover of school board membership and school administrators.

Much has been heard and written about the extra-legal status of the North Central Association. To me, the answer is very simple, although it may come as a bit of a shock to school boards and their members. Whatever the so-called extra-legal status of the North Central Association and its authority over high schools in Illinois may be, the Boards of Education are responsible for it and have allowed it to come to be. The North Central Association is a voluntary association of high schools and higher institutions organized for an agreed purpose. Such type of an association is common today and is obvious to everyone. Each and every Board of Education controls legally its high school in every phase of its activities. So therefore, if a high school belongs to the North Central Association, the inescapable fact remains that its Board of Education has acquiesced, one way or another, in its being a member. It matters not whether a Board has done so by direct action, indifference, or default. The mere fact that school funds are used to pay the annual dues is sufficient; or the fact that through delegated authority to the school administrator a delegate attends the Annual Meeting of the North Central, that is sufficient. Regardless of how impractical it might be, a Board of Education could even send a board member as an official delegate if it wished. That school boards do not exercise their legal authority does not change the fact

that, in the aggregate, Boards of Education give the North Central Association whatever status it enjoys over secondary education. A high school is not compelled to belong to the North Central Association, yet in the aggregate, most have voluntarily joined.

In my examination of the North Central Association and its rules and criteria, I find nothing basically wrong as a voluntary organization of high schools existing with the legal approval, specific or tacit, of their Boards of Education. Rather it is the human equation, as in anything, in our procedures resulting from our interpretation and understanding of the rules and criteria of the North Central Association that makes the difference. Like any tool of collective human affairs, everything depends on how we use it. Let us blame no one but ourselves, educator and board member alike, for any lack of attainment of the purposes of the North Central Association.

Accrediting is a function of the North Central Association that is much discussed, praised, and decried. To me, accrediting is merely the result of the sum total of activities of a high school as measured by a standard agreed to by all members of the North Central Association. The real purpose of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association is to maintain a minimum standard of high-school performance in all phases that will insure a competent educational experience for all students. That there must be minimum standards in existence for secondary educational performance, I do not believe anyone would dispute. Who, then, should develop and maintain those minimum standards?

Can an individual Board of Education maintain minimum standards of education, let alone develop them? There would be too much variance

among schools. Then there would be interested groups on the local board levels which might make adherence to a standard very difficult. I think the practical difficulties are obvious.

Next, can the office of the State Superintendent of Public Instruction maintain a minimum standard? What I say here is entirely without prejudice because our Joint Committee in Illinois has received only the highest understanding and co-operation from the State Superintendent and his representative on our Joint Committee. What I have said about maintenance of standards on the local level applies equally to the State level. My answer is that no politically elected official should have custody of adequate minimum standards of education. The fact that they may have to set one by law begs the question of proper enforcement.

Where then should be the repository of minimum standards of education? In whose hands can it best be maintained? My answer is the North Central Association, where those collectively interested in, responsible for, and working with educational operations can impartially judge the activities of those high schools which voluntarily want it that way. The high-school members have no other concern than measuring themselves against the accepted standard of performance because that is the reason they joined the North Central Association. *Q.E.D.*

How well the standards of the North Central Association are interpreted and hence lived up to, is another question concerning which there is an important factor lacking. Of this I shall speak later. For practical purposes of operation most of the interpretation and application of the *North Central Association Regulations, Policies, and Criteria* is done through the State Committees. The State Committee has the task of

applying the North Central Association's standards of performance to the specific problems within the state. How do these problems arise? They arise at the local Board of Education level because of difference in attitudes toward a given matter between educators and laymen. It is usually when the laymen—whether board members or from the community—and the professional educator or administrator do not see eye to eye that a problem is created. They might even agree, and still create a problem. Agreeing or disagreeing on a given matter, the problem comes into being when that action affects the standard of education which has been agreed to by virtue of its high school(s) being a member of the North Central Association. Under such circumstances, not to take action would be to destroy the standard of education, as agreed as good, by that school and its responsible Board of Education.

Earlier, I said there was an important factor lacking in the North Central Association's maintenance of its standards. This lack is the absence of the layman's understanding and approach to school problems. Heretofore, at the State Committee level, these problems affecting educational standards have been judged and recommendations made solely by professional educators. They are handicapped by experience only as professional educators in their own field. Since the schools are operated as a service to the community, it naturally follows that the lay viewpoint and judgment should be brought to play on the maintenance of the North Central Association's standards for education. It is best that the plaintiff is not also the judge, otherwise the defendant will not receive a fair chance.

What I have just said, in my opinion, also applies equally to the Illinois High School Association or any state

athletic association. In fact, I do not see too much justification for the I.H.S.A. as an independent association. The same men cast their votes in the North Central Association and in the Illinois High School Association. I think the high school activity in its entirety would be better served and administered by one set of standards and one association. Athletics, and such, are just as much a part of the total curricular program as the classroom. Why have two sets of rules and criteria?

We have heard recently that the Legislative Commission appointed to investigate the North Central Association [in Illinois] has organized and is to hold its first hearing soon. Such a hearing held to bring forth all the facts impartially will be good. Whatever there is about the North Central Association, and its purpose and activities, should be known. The more widespread this knowledge becomes, the better it will be for education in Illinois. If there is no secret about the source of the authority of the North Central Association, and, I have indicated that that source of authority is the Boards of Education, then the facts will speak for themselves to all those interested.

What is the answer to all this—a condition which sincerely bothers many people? The answer is lay participation by school board members through their state school board association. I will go a step further and state that the North Central Association—Commission on Secondary Schools—is the Board of Education—the aggregate of the nineteen states. It is just that, no more, no less! This being the case, plus the fact that the activities of the North Central Association are carried out by the State Committees, then there should be laymen school board mem-

bers on the North Central Association State Committees.

My recommendation is that the Illinois State Committee of the North Central Association ask permission of the North Central Association at its Annual Meeting to conduct for two years the experiment of having a State Committee consisting of fifteen members, seven professional members, selected as they now are, and seven school board members, selected by the Illinois School Board Association, together with the Illinois State Chairman. At the end of the two years the Chairman would make his report to the North Central Association as to the merits and results of the experiment. On this basis and the judgment of the North Central Association the future composition of State Committees could be charted.¹

In closing, it seems to me that we are needlessly worried by the power and authority of the North Central Association. It is within the power of Boards of Education to make of the North Central Association what they will. There is no compulsion about being a member unless it is the fear of any Board of its own curricular weaknesses. If that fear makes them a better school, so be it. The tools of a better set of standards of education lie in the structure of the North Central Association. Educators and board members alike, to the best educational advantage, can make of it what we have already correctly made and we will see a better and a more practical brand of secondary education.

¹ The Illinois State Committee voted unanimously to request the Commission on Secondary Schools to adopt this proposed experiment beginning after the 1952 Annual Meeting of the North Central Association.—L. B. Fisher, *State Chairman*.

CONFERENCE ON INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS

J. B. EDMONSON

Chairman, Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools

ON DECEMBER 1, 1951, an Invitational Conference on Intercollegiate Athletics, called by the North Central Committee on Intercollegiate Athletics, was held at the LaSalle Hotel in Chicago. Invitations were issued to seventy-five persons, including officials of the North Central Association, the National Collegiate Athletic Association, selected college administrators and high school principals. Representatives of a few state athletic associations and college athletic conferences were also invited. There were seventy-two persons in attendance.

The program of the Conference placed emphasis on honest practices in college athletics as have been endorsed by many colleges and by such organizations as the National Collegiate Athletic Association and the United States Olympic Committee. Several proposals for better enforcement of standards were submitted to the Conference and some of these will receive the early consideration of the North Central Association.

At the Conference on December 1, representatives of the other regional college accrediting associations of the United States were present together with representatives of the American Council on Education, the United States Office of Education, and the National Education Association. Among those on the program were Dr. George Rosenlof of the University of Nebraska, who is President of the North Central Association; President Frederick Hovde of Purdue University; President Avery Brundage of the United States Olympic Committee;

Chancellor Harvie Branscomb of Vanderbilt University; Walter Byers of the staff of the N.C.A.A.; C. A. Semler, Principal of the High School at Benton Harbor, Michigan, and President of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations; and Professor Norman Burns of the University of Chicago who is Secretary of the North Central Commission on Higher Institutions.

As chairman of the Special Committee, the writer presided at this conference. The members of his Committee who participated in the Conference were Mr. Eugene Youngert, Superintendent of Schools, Oak Park, Illinois; Professor Lowell Fisher, of the University of Illinois; and Mr. Glen O. Ream, Principal of the High School, Albuquerque, New Mexico. The Committee has prepared several recommendations to the Association for implementing exacting standards for intercollegiate athletics and has also prepared proposals for developing active cooperation with the N.C.A.A. The Committee will present a full report at the Association's meeting in March, 1952.

In the pages which immediately follow, a statement pertaining to intercollegiate athletics as they affect secondary schools appears. It was prepared by a subcommittee of the Special Committee. Mr. Semler was chairman of this group, whose full roster appears in his report. He presented this statement at the forenoon session of the Conference, which discussed it at length in the group meetings which followed in the afternoon.

PROBLEMS OF INTERCOLLEGIATE ATHLETICS AS THEY AFFECT SECONDARY SCHOOLS¹

CHARLES A. SEMLER, *Chairman*

Subcommittee of the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics

IT IS the belief of this Committee that athletic competition is a very important part of the educational program of both colleges and secondary schools. It is one of the most effective means we have for teaching young men and women many of the attitudes and values which we deem important in our cultural and national life. These desirable ends can be obtained only if the athletic program is kept an integral part of the whole educational program and under the complete and direct control of those responsible for that educational program.

Because of the public pressure created by the glamour, entertainment value and popular appeal of the intercollegiate athletic program we have in the last few years largely lost our perspective and separated it from the remainder of the educational program as far as ethics, purpose, and control are concerned. As a result a great many abuses have crept in which bid fair, not only to wreck the intercollegiate pro-

gram, but eventually to affect unfavorably the entire educational and athletic program of both secondary schools and colleges.

We believe, therefore, that leaders in secondary education, as well as those in higher education, have a peculiar responsibility for the proper direction and control of the athletic program.

We believe that many of the current abuses in the intercollegiate athletic program have grown out of the failure of educational leaders to exercise this responsibility. We furthermore believe that if this responsibility is not assumed at once by responsible leaders who believe in the inherent values of the athletic program, the current abuses will be used as a basis for destruction of the whole program of competitive athletics by those people who do not believe in competition in any form. The time to correct the evils in intercollegiate athletics is running out.

We believe that the problem will have to be solved jointly by colleges and secondary schools. While to a great extent our athletic programs are independent of each other, and should remain so, still what happens on either level affects the other. The high school player of today is the college player of tomorrow. The circumstances under which he may transfer from high school to college give rise to many of the abuses in the college program which affect high schools unfavorably. In many instances the college player of today is the high school coach and teacher of tomorrow. He brings with him to his high school job the philosophy, ideals, and attitudes acquired

¹ A statement prepared by a Subcommittee appointed by Dean J. B. Edmonson, Chairman of the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The members of the Subcommittee are: Earl Seifert, Chairman of the Commission on Secondary Schools of the North Central Association; Eugene Youngert, Secretary of the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics of the North Central Association; H. V. Porter, Executive Secretary of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations; George Manning, Member of the North Central Association Committee for the Study of Interschool Contests; Charles E. Forsythe, Athletic Director of the Michigan State High School Athletic Association; Charles A. Semler (chairman), President of the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations.

in his college competition. If colleges continue to train our coaches in this atmosphere of "professionalism" (by professionalism we mean athletics carried on primarily for entertaining the general public on a strictly dollars-and-cents basis rather than athletics conducted primarily as an educational device), it cannot help carrying over into the high school program. Secondary school leaders are concerned.

Because of the intense public interest in college athletics the present abuses in the program, even if confined only to a minority of colleges, exert a powerful influence on lay opinion which is reflected in the attitude of the local public toward high school sports. When colleges demand a winning team at all costs and dismiss coaches who do not produce such teams despite long term contracts solemnly entered into, local school authorities tend strongly to follow this example. If gambling, "fixed games," proselyting of players, lax eligibility rules, and large scale commercialization continue to grow in colleges, the effort to keep secondary school athletics honest, decent, and sane will become increasingly difficult if not impossible.

In short it is our belief that the college and high school athletic programs will live or die together and that it will require the closest and most whole-hearted cooperation to cure the current abuses which have crept into the program.

On the basis of these beliefs we recommend that the Commission on Secondary Schools recommend to the North Central Association that it adopt a statement of policies and principles on intercollegiate athletic practices as they affect the secondary school program and students. In this statement we believe they should concern themselves with the following

abuses and undesirable practices in the intercollegiate program.

1. It should be suggested that colleges state as a fundamental philosophy that it is their business to educate and not to entertain the public on a commercial basis. All athletic practices should be premised on such a philosophy.

2. The practice of many colleges offering special financial inducements to athletes to attend, over and above those available to all students, is indefensible and demoralizing. It is useless for anyone to deny any longer that this is being done, just because it is difficult to prove legally. It is quite disturbing to see high school athletes, when they become seniors, go "shopping" to sell their athletic ability to the highest bidding college. Most colleges, directly or indirectly, are in the "bidding" market. All too often the transaction is encouraged, aided, and abetted by the high school coach. As a result of this, too many athletes measure the value of their participation in terms of dollars. It is difficult to believe that there is not some connection between this practice and the acceptance of bribes by college athletes. It must be difficult indeed for a college boy to see the moral wrong in accepting bribes to control the score in a basketball game when in all probability he was "bribed" in the first place to attend and play for the school which he represents.

The Joint Committee on Standards in Athletics of the National Association of Secondary School Principals, the National Federation of State High School Athletic Associations and the American Association of Health, Physical Education and Recreation have made the following statement concerning the proselyting of athletes by colleges: "The solicitation of athletes through tryout and competitive bid-

ding by higher institutions is unethical and unprofessional. It destroys the amateur nature of athletics, tends to commercialize the individual and the program, promotes the use of athletic skill for gain and takes an unfair and unjust advantage of competitors."

3. To forestall the abuses of proselytizing, contact by colleges with prospective students should be made only by their admission officers through the office of the high school principal. The practice of separate recruiting by college athletic departments is sure to lead to the abuses of today which have reached the ridiculous stage. Neither should colleges permit alumni or other groups to set up such scouting or recruiting agencies for athletes. It may be argued that colleges cannot control such groups but it is doubtful if any such group could function successfully without the tolerance of the college concerned.

4. Tryout and elaborate entertainment for high school students by colleges are equally undesirable and should not be permitted.

5. Rigid standards of scholarship for intercollegiate athletic competition should be formulated, published, and enforced. It is now the common belief among high school students and the general public that college athletes generally do not have to meet the same standards of scholarship expected of other students and that if an important college player fails in his studies, ways will be found to make him eligible. This belief tends to bring into disrepute the integrity of the entire intercollegiate athletic program and by bad example makes honest enforcement of eligibility rules in high schools more difficult.

6. Serious consideration should be given to cooperative action between the high school and college groups in setting up machinery for enforcement

of reasonable regulations to cover eligibility and contest conditions between the close of a given sport's season in an athlete's senior year in high school and his entrance in college. This would discourage the promotional use of seniors or recently graduated athletes in professionalized contests and the resultant circumvention of well established controls which give protection during the period up to the close of the senior sports season and after entrance in college. Two phases of this problem are involved in the following two illustrations.

The first phase.—A high school athlete whose primary interest is football complies with established eligibility and contest rules up to the end of his last football season. Failure to do so would make him ineligible for participation. As soon as his season closes the ineligibility penalty becomes of small concern to him when weighed against pressures for his participation in promotional activities which are contrary to established regulations and which tend to professionalize the sport and change the viewpoint of the athlete.

The second phase.—A high school athlete whose primary interest is basketball conforms to all established regulations up to the end of his last season. After that his participation in questionable or openly flagrant activities during the remainder of his senior year will make him ineligible for a specified time but the penalty is not enough to balance the pressures of promotional activities which exploit him in out-of-season activities during the remainder of his senior year or during the months following his graduation.

These evils could be greatly reduced if the colleges and high schools would cooperate in providing adequate enforcement machinery so that a term of ineligibility would be served in its entirety either in high school or college.

7. No college scholarships should be granted except on the basis of scholastic and personal achievement for both athletes and non-athletes. The granting of "athletic scholarships" has been the basis of many of the current abuses and is indefensible. When col-

lege athletes go before State Compensation Boards, petition for and are granted disability pay, when injured, the ridiculous end results of such practices are apparent.

8. Most state high school athletic associations forbid or discourage "all star" and post-season games. Colleges should cooperate by making their facilities and staffs unavailable for such contests. (*Note*.—the Western Conference has already taken such action.)

9. High schools, through their national and state athletic organizations, have legislated strongly against national and regional championships, bowl games, out of season practice, excessive number of games, long distance travel, interference of athletics with the remainder of the school's program, and participation in contests managed or controlled by commercial interests. But colleges, to an ever increasing degree, promote or permit these practices. They not only are the source of many of the evils of the college program but create pressure on the secondary schools to relax their rules.

10. Most state high school athletic associations feel that undue recognition for a boy in the nature of awards tends to create false values and undermine what they are trying to do. Most of them therefore have rules which render a boy ineligible if he accepts any award excepting emblems of insignificant material value. A similar policy in colleges would greatly strengthen these rules and create a healthier atmosphere for athletic competition.

11. Secondary schools, through their national, regional, and state educational and athletic organizations, stand ready to cooperate with any educational organizations, such as the North Central Association, in the study and improvement of their own athletic program. They also desire to cooperate

with the colleges in an effort to eliminate the evils which beset the inter-collegiate program. Bad practices in the colleges hurt the high school program. Current abuse can only be solved by wholehearted cooperation. We are going to live or die together.

Because the North Central Association traditionally deals with those problems which affect the relationship of colleges and secondary schools we believe it has a definite and peculiar responsibility to deal with these problems. Since the problems are national in scope we believe the North Central Association should invite other accrediting associations to take similar action.

We therefore recommend that the North Central Association take the following definite action:

1. Adopt and set up machinery to enforce more specific standards dealing with these and related problems and abuses current in the inter-collegiate athletic program.
2. Insist that its member schools set up machinery and athletic organizations strong enough to enforce and implement such standards.
3. Invite and urge other accrediting associations to cooperate with it in these undertakings by taking similar action in their areas.

We furthermore suggest that in the discussions which are to follow this afternoon,¹ ample time be given for full and unbiased consideration of the following questions:

1. Are the high schools justified in asserting that they have a vital stake in the future of the intercollegiate athletic program?
2. What can the North Central Association do to eliminate current abuses so that the athletic program can make the sound educational contributions on both the college and secondary level of which it is capable?
3. What steps can be taken to convince the "man on the street" of the seriousness of the situation so that he will support a sound, sane, and honest athletic program, rather than the

¹ This report was submitted to the Special Committee on Intercollegiate and Interscholastic Athletics at Chicago, December 1, 1951.

frenzied, high pressure, commercialized program which we now have?

It is hardly necessary for anyone to say at this late date that colleges are facing a crisis as far as the future of their athletic program is concerned. But it might not be amiss to point out that because of this crisis they face a grave responsibility and a challenging opportunity to make a great and lasting contribution, not only to the cause of education in both colleges and secondary schools, *but to the very morals*

and ethics of the nation. But this opportunity must be seized boldly and without delay. The secondary schools stand ready to cooperate in this effort.

This Committee wishes to commend the National Collegiate Athletic Association, the American Council on Education, the Educational Policies Commission of the National Education Association, and the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for their current efforts to meet this crisis.

EDUCATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONS AT THE INTERNATIONAL LEVEL¹

AHMED S. BOKHARI

Permanent Representative of Pakistan to the United Nations

I HAVE SPENT the greater part of my life in universities. It is mostly during the last three years, since my country has attained the status of a sovereign nation, that I have been wandering over the greater part of the globe, trying to understand human relations at the international level to see how best my country can fit into the international pattern and how best it can contribute to the common good.

Because of my past activities, I frankly say that I feel very much more at home in a gathering like this than in the United Nations itself. I am gratified, however, that our theme this morning is education for the improvement of human relations on an international level, because that helps for a moment to bring about a happy coincidence between my duties as the representative of my country and the spirit and atmosphere of a forum of teachers and educators.

In order to put before you my views on education for whatever they are worth for the purpose of improving human relations on the international level, may I begin with the mention of the Continent of Asia, a continent from which I hail and with which my own personal destiny is intimately interwoven.

When I came to this country for the first time about three years ago, it was my good fortune to address a few audiences on the subject of Asia, and I remember that I used to preface my remarks by stating that that continent contains more than half the population of the world. I remember that almost invariably the next morning I would re-

ceive a few telephone calls drawing my attention to the statement which I had made the previous evening and adding, "You remember you said Asia contained more than half the people of the world?" I would say, "Yes," and they would say, "You are right. We looked it up." I do not believe that today I need to resort to such statistics in order to bring to you the importance of that continent.

It is a strange fact, and yet one that should really arouse us to the present international situation, that during the last year or more in the United Nations itself, almost four out of every five major decisions concern some aspect or another of the situation in Asia although sixty nations sit around the table, out of which a few, mostly belonging to this continent and the continent of Europe, provide the lead and, if I may say so, dominate the scene.

I will not put before you the platitude that today all countries are knitted together indissolubly. I do not wish to remind you in this country that for the sake of an almost unknown corner of Asia called Korea, whose people most people here have not seen and who, if they were presented in a photograph two years ago, would not have been considered worth a double look, for the sake of that unknown, obscure piece of land, somebody's husband or sweetheart or brother or son in any one of the states of the United States has either died or is being wounded.

That, if anything, should bring home to us the extraordinarily intimate relation which exists between that part of the globe and this country. It is, therefore, I think, not only the duty of those

¹ Delivered before the Association in Chicago, March 31, 1951.

who are interested in education as such, or of those who are interested in international studies, but the duty of everyone who aspires to the greatest status that mankind can achieve, namely, the status of a good citizen, that he should study that part of the globe.

If, in this morning's talk, I can present one or two facts as they appear to us in that quarter of the earth, and if I can arouse even your mild interest in it, I shall consider myself amply compensated.

I have already talked of the population of Asia. I would not base my conception of the importance of that continent on numbers; nevertheless, in a small way numbers count. Human beings and human lives have a way of asserting themselves and have a way of fighting down neglect, and if one human life matters, millions of human lives matter a million-fold.

I am not given to prophecy and I am the least qualified to prophesy, but I venture to say that within another fifty years you will hear much more of another large tract of land with millions of human beings in it; namely, Africa.

If you would care to look at the map of the world, you would find that Europe, comparatively, is a very small piece of land. I do not say that in any negative way. I do not say that because it is not important. All that I say is that all of us—and that includes your present speaker—have for centuries been European-minded. That, as I said, and I would like to stress, includes me, because, undoubtedly, during the last two centuries and more Europe has been the fountainhead of knowledge, of culture, and of power.

The United Nations, as you know, was conceived in a postwar state of mind and in a state of mind which regarded Europe as the pivot of the world. You will find that during the

first three years of its deliberations all the many decisions, all the orientation, and all the various types of outlooks which governed the deliberations of the United Nations were European-minded. This was only natural, because the United Nations took its birth from circumstances which formed the aftermath of the last war and it took into consideration the major partners or the major allies of that war.

We hope we have gotten out of the post-mortem period. It may be that we now have a pre-war mentality. Nevertheless, we ought to shake the memories of the last war and look ahead rather than look behind, and when you look ahead, you will find that Asia will loom larger and larger on the horizon.

What has happened in Asia which should make it so important? Why should it claim your attention? I hope to be able to show later why it should engage your interest and your study and, if I may say so, your sympathetic understanding.

For two centuries or so the larger part of Asia has been directly or indirectly under the domination of mostly European powers. I am not saying this in any accusing manner. I am merely putting before you the historical facts, because, looked at from the human, or rather, looked at from a student point of view, the domination of one country by another, although it seems to be a very sad and ugly fact in human affairs, nevertheless does not give us enough data to fix blame. Personally, I believe that nations get what they deserve, and if certain nations dominate others, it could not but be that one of those nations has lost its moral fibre and does not deserve to hold its place in the world. Therefore, when I talk of these facts, please remember that I am not accusing anybody of having brought this state of affairs about. The accusations in the year 1951 about events

which happened more than two centuries ago are absolutely profitless.

The fact, however, remains that for two centuries the greater part of Asia was directly or indirectly dominated by what we now call the colonial powers. Today most of Asia is free from such domination. Therefore, we should probably say that the harm which was done will now be undone, and, therefore, that there is no cause today to lament the sins or calamities of the past.

That I would say were it not for the fact that the last two centuries have been extremely important in the development of mankind, and they have been important in the following manner. It was during the last two centuries that European civilization as we know it today, in its present and new phase, was built up, and the main factor that helped to bring in this new phase of European civilization was the development of science and technology. During these two centuries European civilization discovered the use of steam. From steam it led to electricity; from electricity, to atomic energy.

During these two centuries, therefore, Europe and all the legatees of European civilization, such as your wonderful nation, have taken the fullest advantage of new tools in the development of man's economy and perhaps in helping toward human welfare. It was during these two centuries that most Asiatic nations were under the domination of European powers who in their own homes were getting on with these technical developments. However, this progress and these new tools, our welfare of economic development, were not shared with the peoples of Asia, with the result that although today we enjoy a greater measure of freedom than we have known during the last two centuries, we find ourselves in a situation where, on the one hand, in-

ternational events force us to take an equal place along with others in ordering the world of today, and, on the other hand, we find that we lack all the tools and all the equipment which is necessary for the survival and for the development of people in this century. Therefore, we are faced with a dilemma. How can we make an effective contribution to peace and order in the world when we find ourselves practically two or three centuries behind the times in ordinary human intercourse, in ordinary human development, and in productivity?

This is a problem with which we are faced, and believe me, if you look at that problem at such a close distance as we are accustomed to look, it looks formidable and extremely discouraging for peace.

Look at the fact of my great country, Pakistan, and the same applies to our great neighbor, India. Here we are in the year 1951 sitting as independent, sovereign nations along with fifty-nine others in the United Nations; expected to do our best in order to bring about peace, stability, and order in the world; expected to help human beings, including ourselves and others, to live better lives to the greater glory of God, whatever the god may be they believe in. Yet we find ourselves in the position where, after two hundred years of foreign rule, not more than 8 to 10 percent of the people can read or write any language whatsoever. The average expectancy of life is about twenty-seven years, by which token your present speaker should have joined his ancestors about two centuries ago. The infant mortality is about the highest in the world. The average income per capita annually is between fifty to one hundred dollars a year, as compared to about six hundred to nine hundred dollars a year for

most European countries and nine hundred to a thousand dollars a year for the U.S.A.

What is it that we are expected to do, and how best can we make a useful contribution to the various problems that face the world today?

Therefore, in this situation I say that it is your duty and mine to understand each other and to see how best we can help each other for what I believe to be a common cause. The first thing to understand about Asia, I think, is the tremendous national resurgence that has come over most countries like a wave. Take my own country, for instance. We, together with our neighboring country, had been under British rule for a long time. We struggled to get free and win the independence that, thanks to the wisdom and participation of Great Britain, succeeded without shedding more blood than might have been necessary. Not only that, but so far as Pakistan is concerned, we struggled to achieve a double liberation: from British rule on the one hand, and from what we feared would be Hindu rule on the other, for you will recall that the Indian sub-continent, before liberation, was the home of two great nations, the nation of Hindus numbering three hundred million, and the nation of Moslems numbering one hundred million. The Moslems thought that if these two nations, without discrimination, were regarded as the legatees of British power, the western nation consisting of a hundred million people would remain forever a perpetual and unalterable minority in that country.

It was for that reason that a hundred million Moslems asked for a country of their own. They felt certain that democracy, as they conceived it, would not work in that country and that the stresses and the strains within

the new architecture of Asia would be so great as to cause its early destruction. Therefore, they asked for a separate country, namely, Pakistan, to which I have the honor to belong.

The first thing, therefore, the first urge that worked in a double way with us was the democratic urge. The second urge which is almost a collaborative and sometimes a cause of national assertion in Asia is the cultural awareness of the people.

It is not for me to tell a knowledgeable, able audience like this that the various cultures of Asia are two thousand, three thousand, four thousand, five thousand years old. When I say the cultures of Asia and when I talk of their antiquity, I don't necessarily assign any value either to the word "culture" or to the notion of antiquity. I merely talk of culture as a way of living, that ethnological sense which has been inherited by the members of India over a number of centuries, because I want to impress both on myself and on other students of international affairs the fact that the majority of the people of Asia have long traditions in which they believe very strongly, indeed. In fact, the greater part of this tradition is their religion, and, therefore, a large number of beliefs by which the people of Asia are motivated today and hope to preserve themselves in the future have the strength of religious beliefs and the great conviction which only religious beliefs can evoke.

Amongst such, so far as my country is concerned, is the notion of democracy. To us democracy is not a political theory or a matter of political expediency. It is not merely a matter of finding some means whereby people can live happily. It is that, but much more.

The people of my country, hoping to

revive Islamic tradition, believe as a religious tenet that democracy is the only way by which ordered human beings should live. It is a very strong belief and to uproot it would take more than a few temporary upheavals in the world.

I particularly stress this fact because one is asked innumerable times in this country that very famous question which I am sure is framing itself in your minds, but which I would like to articulate for you: Are you a communist?

That question, to a large number of people in Asia would seem irrelevant. I don't say that it is not a question which you should ask me. I understand that for people like yourselves—and if I may include myself amongst you—that question has validity, because you and I understand what it means; but to the majority of the people in Asia—and remember I said only 9 to 10 percent can read or write any language whatsoever—the question has no meaning. If you look at this question from their ignorant point of view, you will find there is something in their notion of irrelevance, because they will ask you in their benign fashion, "Did not the world exist before what you call communism came into being, and were there not good people and bad people before that, and were the good people then safe in the days of the Old Testament? Were the good people then called non-communists, or will there not be a world after the world has passed through this phase or has lost that terrifying power in the name which exists? Will there not be good people and bad people then, and are you not going to take every human being who may have his religion going back thousands of years and are you going to try to put him into pigeon-holes and compartments which are only of small duration and

were created only a few decades ago?" "What I would like you to do," one would say, "is to look at my beliefs and decide for yourself what labels you would like to give them. I would rather ask you instead of your asking me, 'Are you a communist?'"

When trying to understand the people of Asia it is best to look at that which involves the whole of their beliefs rather than to find out their antipathies to them. It is their religion as a way of life which governs their political, their economic, and their social life.

I know there must be many among you who have studied the Moslem religion and who would say quite rightly, "But is it not a fact that under Islam and in the past history of Islam there have been many despots; there have been dictators; there have been cruel tyrants; there have been reactionary people?" My answer would be, "Yes. There have been." This is exactly what the people of my country believe today, that all those people in Islamic history who were despots and tyrants were pursuing an Islamic way of life and that they are going to find the truth in Islam. It may be a naïve way of looking at things and you may find it amusing; but as long as people believe in something right and good, as long as they believe that all the ills that you accredit to their forefathers came from their neglect of religion and that they, for the first time, perhaps, or the second time, are going to find the truth of religion and thus base their life on democracy and economic justice, I don't think that we, with our later understanding, should call them naïve. I would say, let them believe thus. If there are people in the East who believe in democracy as a religion, perhaps they believe in it even more strongly than we do.

Because of those long years of foreign domination our independence is a

much more valuable thing to us than even to my friends sitting in this hall; and, also, peace, for I know that there is nobody in this country and there is none in my country who desires a war. But, whereas you would, if I may be permitted to guess, like to have peace in order to enjoy the fruits of a wonderful civilization which you have built up with your energy and enterprise, my people would like to have peace, not to enjoy a civilization they have built up, for they have had not time yet to do it, but to take a first breath of their newly won independence. To them, therefore, the need for peace is far more desperate. They need it, first to get the feeling of the independence for which they have been struggling so long and, secondly, to see if they cannot remove the misery and the squalor and the poverty that they see around themselves so that they may lead a little more of what is regarded in the rest of the world as human lives. To them, therefore, peace is both urgent and necessary.

On the other hand, since in the past they have tasted foreign domination, they are not so scared of threats to their independence. They have gotten used to the idea. "We have struggled for two hundred years to get rid of foreign domination," they say, "and if some other aggressor threatens us, we shall take it calmly. We know. We have fought aggressors before who have reduced us to a sub-human level. We shall fight them again. We are not frightened, although we don't welcome the prospect, we assure you."

Therefore, in Asia today there is a tremendous spirit of independence which, if rightly harnessed and if sympathetically encouraged, will be the greatest bulwark against aggression, against imperialism, and against the death of human freedom, because we have struggled against these aggres-

sions before. In fact, in Asia today we are weary of how the vacuums left in that continent by the withdrawal of colonial powers are being filled. We don't think that aggression, imperialism, domination, slavery, and automatic monopoly of European powers are universal.

Any nation in the world, provided it begins to decay morally, can become aggressive, domineering, and imperialistic. We don't say that imperialism is a sad and ugly monopoly of the western powers. Fifty years ago or a little more we watched an Asiatic power—Japan—rise to great imperialistic domination. We know that Japan started off with the beautiful slogan, "Asia for the Asiatics," but we learned to our cost a little later that by "Asia for the Asiatics," it meant Asia for only some Asiatics.

We are weary of that today, and, therefore, in guarding our own independence and our own way of life, we are wary about western domination as well as any domination, even on our native soil, I assure you. This is in the hearts of most of the countries in Asia; it is sound. That is the burden of my present talk.

We realize two things. The first is that unless we put our own shoulders to the wheel and unless we consider no sacrifice too great and unless we harness all our moral, material, and human resources to the fullest, then we cannot hope to get out of this morass. We also realize that without international cooperation we cannot hope to make the progress which should be regarded as anything like adequate in the world today. Left to ourselves, how are we to break this vicious circle of low productivity and therefore no surplus income, and bad health; very little or no capital to invest, therefore no production; and so the circle goes around and around.

That is why we regard the technical aid program of the United Nations to be one of the most civilized and one of the most far-sighted programs of that organization. That is why we think that President Truman's Point Four Program is also an extremely wise measure.

We are, however, certain that neither of these two will more than touch the fringe of the problem. Both of these programs concentrate on giving the Asiatic people plans for development,—giving them advice by following which, and by working hard on which, and by training a few people they can perhaps achieve economic development. Neither of these will more than tinker with the problem. Our greatest need at the present moment is to discover how we can very quickly install heavy machinery which will break the vicious circle and enable us to begin to produce our own goods.

You will realize that 90 percent of the people in Asia live on the land. They have an agricultural economy, but by agricultural economy I would not like you to think of your own agricultural state. If you go through various lands of Asia with the Old Testament in your hand and turn over page after page you will find around you evidence, tangible and visible, of exactly what you find inscribed in its pages. Compared to the industrial civilization of the West, we have nothing. Our possessions can be measured in the same terms, I think, as the possessions of the people in the Stone Age; compared to the beginnings of the agricultural civilization, our productivity is extremely low. That is the first problem we have before us: how to feed our population; how to get them out of this rut of primitive agriculture; and, last of all, how to do it very quickly, for, believe me, we are in a desperate hurry.

If we don't hurry, with as much of your help and cooperation as we can get, we shall become a burden on the shoulders of the world, and we would hate to do that. If we don't hurry, we are not likely to be able to make the smallest contribution to that which we consider our great responsibility in the world today.

I would, therefore, if I may speak as a teacher to fellow teachers, request that you tell the younger generation who are in your custody in this country and whose minds are under your control as teachers, first of all about the importance of that continent. Secondly, tell them of the history of the civilization and the culture of those people. Thirdly, tell them of the plight in which they are finding themselves, and, fourthly, tell them that as Americans today, their duty is to the world as a whole.

This last point I do not need to stress, but I would merely say this: The United States is the greatest and the mightiest country that the world has ever known. When you come to think of what a mighty country means amongst other countries, what a mighty country has always meant amongst other countries, you will, in the last analysis, find that in international language that country is considered powerful which has the greater power to kill. That country is considered powerful which can produce enough machines and enough manpower to conquer. *That* the United States undoubtedly is, and were it only that, I would not remind you of it. But to have that kind of might and that kind of power alone is an outdated idea. On that idea we cannot run an international society, because an international society is not a society of nations armed against each other. It is much more than that.

Today, as you know, international

affairs have begun to affect the lives of individuals, your life and mine, as we sit in our families amongst our children. What happens in distant parts of the world affects what we do in the morning, in the afternoon, and at night. Today, therefore, the United States, whose civilization has been built up with such astuteness and with such success, has a greater duty. It has a duty, not of purely power leadership of the world, but of moral leadership. I stress that because, although I come from the East, from a country whose name is only three years old, all my life I have partaken of the civilization of the world within the limits of my own resources and have learned from it. I spent most of my life educating myself in England and the rest of Europe and in keeping in touch with the cultural movements in this country.

I personally believe that the notion of civilization which I, and millions of others like me, have held since childhood is doomed if the United States of America does not capture the leadership of the modern world. It has all the resources at its command. It has only to take one more step forward. It has to use its tremendous resources and

the energy and the curiosity and the enterprise of its people within the orbit of international social objectives. If the United States does that—and I have every hope that it will do so—then it will save civilization, which includes even the humble and obscure people like myself. But if by some calamity it should fail to capture the moral leadership of the world, then the prospects would indeed be dark for all of us.

Therefore, when the young men and women of the coming generation come to you, please put side by side with what I have requested you to put before them, this very simple message from one unimportant individual from Asia: that they belong to a country which has to be morally upright in the world, which has to inculcate in the minds of the world the ideas of social economy, the ideals of justice—not merely between man and man, but between nation and nation—and that if its might is to be used for the greater glory of God on this earth, then the Americans must capture that moral leadership to help others as, indeed, those others to the best of their ability, must help themselves.

EDUCATION FOR THE IMPROVEMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONS AT THE COMMUNITY LEVEL¹

JAMES A. LEWIS

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THAT REALLY GREAT man, Willard Goslin, once gave a talk on human relations which he titled, "You Can't Grow Petunias by Stomping on Them." I think it was the most common-sense talk on this general topic that I ever heard, mainly because Dr. Goslin stressed over and over again that humans, like petunias, grow and flourish when the climate is warm and friendly. Touched off by Dr. Goslin's comments, I made some remarks at the University of Chicago Conference a year ago last summer, which Mr. Rosenlof thought should some time or other be made to the members of the North Central Association. Those remarks had to do with group dynamics and educational leadership which are so closely related to human relations. In the last two years it seems to me that I have learned a great deal about some of the things that the boys in group dynamics are talking about. And I really don't think they are doing the job that they think they are doing as far as human relations are concerned.

They are most concerned with devices, it seems to me, which many times have to do with group processes, or getting people to work together. But I think they are ignoring too much the culture, the climate, the nurture that must be behind good group dynamics. I think proper climate and nurture are necessary in improving human relations.

The subject assigned to me is "Improving Human Relations" and I like the word "Improve" because more and more we should talk about "improv-

ing" rather than "changing." I have a hunch that one of the things that has been wrong in our curriculum programs has been that we have talked too much about change and not enough about improvement. The main reason that I was willing to take on an assignment like this was that I have a hunch, too, that the group that is here this morning, primarily the secondary school principals, is the group that can do most in our schools about improving human relations. That is why I am glad to visit with you for a few minutes about some of the notions that I have about this general topic. The emerging role of the secondary principal as the instructional leader of his school, the dean of his faculty, the curriculum expert, the public relations director and general administrator places him in a key position to improve human relations. And, incidentally, in improving human relations, one of his first jobs as the leader is to define the role of all the workers in the enterprise.

Our Michigan Department of Public Instruction has recognized this need for clarification of our work load and has done an excellent job of defining the role of the principal, the superintendent of schools, the teacher, the erstwhile supervisor, and all the other operatives in a school system. A clear definition of those divisions of labor is doing a great deal to give people a stake in the enterprise and a feeling of being part of a going concern.

So, to the secondary school principals especially, I think it is awfully important that you become more and more competent in your role as in-

¹ Delivered before the Association in Chicago, March 30, 1951.

structural leaders and curriculum experts in your respective high schools.

SECONDARY SCHOOLS TODAY

It seems that everyone is looking for a clear cut statement about the purposes of the secondary school today. We are all looking for information to guide us in our roles as leaders in improving instruction. I keep turning back to two or three sources that provide me with real inspiration. The first of these is the Harvard Report which so clearly describes the job of the elementary school, and then pictures the confused situation in our secondary school curriculum objectives. It describes the plight we are in as far as vocational education and general education are concerned. It describes the confusion that seems to be all around us as far as society's demands on the secondary schools are concerned and certainly implies much for improving human relations.

The second source of inspiration is Henry Steele Commager's lead editorial in *Life's* issue devoted to education. In this editorial he gives us a lot of hope for the secondary schools, but he also calls to our attention the fact that society is confused in the job that it is trying to assign to the secondary schools of this country. And he so well shows us that, throughout history, society has always given some definite jobs for the secondary school to do.

I would like to review those jobs just briefly with you. The first job that society assigned the secondary schools in this country was the job of enlightening the citizenry and certainly we did a good job. The second job was getting some national unity in a country that was split into many, many factions. I want to read just a little from Commager's editorial.

In talking about that second job, he said "Schools, like Noah Webster with

his speller and the McGuffeys with their readers, all these and scores of others created and popularized that common group of heroes and villains, that common store of people; and store of images and values of which national spirit is born. These men gave to America, old and new, a people's common language with which to voice a people's common heritage."

And then he picks out a few of the common things that we mouth as Americans. "As for me, give me liberty or give me death." "If they mean to have a war, let it begin here." "One if by land; two if by sea." "These are the times that try men's souls." So on and so on, showing that the American public secondary school had the job of unification.

The third job was one that we know very well, the job of Americanization, pulling together the great groups of peoples that migrated to this country, and the fourth job, which we did so well in the secondary schools, was the job of equality, the job of having all the children and all the people taking the same courses of study, the same kind of educational experiences, in the public schools.

And now we just don't seem to have a job that we can put our fingers on. Thus we are in a state of confusion as far as the secondary school is concerned. Even in this state of confusion, however, I believe if we clearly analyze our school programs, there is one trend that always exists. It is the great movement in the American High School today toward improving human relations and I'd like to devote the remainder of my time to calling this trend directly to your attention.

IS IMPROVING HUMAN RELATIONS OUR JOB?

I base most of the things that I will call to your attention on my thesis for

the job we are doing in human relations on a series of conversations I had with a visitor in our schools. He was an Englishman, sent over here to visit schools by the Minister of Education. He had been in this country about six months when he came to our school system. He had probably been in many of your schools and, after visiting us for several days, made some very interesting observations about what he had observed.

One day, sitting with our staff, somebody in our group asked him what he thought of the secondary schools as he visited them. His reply led me to further questions about his reactions. He said frankly that he was amazed at the confusion he observed as he visited secondary schools in this country.

Now, mind you, he had been six months at it, and he said that everywhere he went he found school administrators groping for the answers in secondary school education. Then he said something that has to do with this topic of improving human relations. He said, "Do you know that everywhere I visit, however, I find them having a good go at the job of improving human relations."

In subsequent meetings I had a chance to talk with him. Just chewing the fat over a luncheon table he said to me, "The amazing thing to me about this interest in human relations is that it seems to me in a society that prides itself on its laissez-faire, competitive, rugged individualism you should have more concern for other attitudes. It seems to me you might do a better job if you would train kids in a very highly competitive, rough and tough sort of a high school to prepare for the life that they will have to live in such a society as yours."

Now let's stop right here, because I think this is the crucial issue. We

all know the problems that we are having in some of our school districts, the splits, the confusion, the criticisms, and I say to you that most of the confusion and criticism is coming from a dualism that exists between the public, the many, many parents, and us, the professional people in the public schools.

Carl Sandburg says, "The horse thinks one thing; he who rides him thinks another." Sometimes I think that is our problem—and our basic problem—these days: the parents are thinking one thing; we are thinking another. Many parents are steeped in what have been our basic concepts derived from the teachings of many of our Nineteenth Century biologists and sociologists; the law of the jungle, the law of nature, the law of conflict, whereas we, as school administrators, are coming more and more to the improvement of human relations as one of our major endeavors. We are not moving ahead too fast, but I fear that we are not bringing the parents along with us.

I now want to list four or five of the many, many points that our English visitor quickly called to our attention, because I had not realized that we were giving as much stress to human relations as we are. I think we are in it up to our hips, and I don't think we are aware of that fact. By taking just a few of the illustrations that he used—things that he had found in visiting the secondary schools—I think I can show you that we are very deeply involved in improving human relations. At the same time, as we go along I would like to call to your attention what the parents think about these improvements, and the conflicts that result between the professional educator and the parents.

Now, these aren't his words, but these are the things that he found as

he visited the secondary schools. The first is the change in our concept of learning and how kids grow and develop.

A HUMAN PSYCHOLOGY

We were trained in the atomistic psychology of Thorndike; that is, in recency, frequency, intensity—and drill. We broke the kids up. We felt that conditioning, reflex actions, and all those things were most important in the learning process. Almost universally we have changed in our psychology of learning to what many people call the Gestalt idea. We have changed to the notion that we learn all over when we learn; that we can't split kids up. We have changed to the concept that learning isn't atomistic at all. It is organic. We learn all over. We learn as a whole.

I like to use the illustration of the teacher working with the class in mathematics. In the faculty or Thorndike psychology we think in terms of drilling these youngsters. But the Gestalt psychologists tell us that we may not be just conditioning the youngsters to facts. They may be learning to hate the teacher, to hate arithmetic. They may be learning to hate school or to cheat. They may be learning all kinds of things at the same time that we think that we are drilling them—conditioning them—in numerical skills.

Isn't this creeping more and more into our thinking? Isn't this the kind of educational psychology that we are accepting? It is a human psychology. It is taking into consideration all of the human needs. It is part of improving human relations.

Let's look now at what the parents think about all this. I think you will agree that many want us to drill them, make it tough for them. They don't accept this notion that one learns all over, and one of our basic concepts,

if we are to practice the new kind of educational psychology, will have to be that we must do a better job of interpreting to the parents what we are trying to do to the children we are working with.

I see that I am not going to have time to go into detail on too many of these points, but some of them, it seems to me, are very important. We are improving human relations, but we haven't taken time enough to make a decent interpretation to parents.

A SELF DISCIPLINE

This matter of self-discipline is the second one that our visitor mentioned in detail. You know that for twenty years we have been talking about self-discipline as against external controls in our secondary schools. We have manifestations of this in the organization of student governments, student courts, pupil-teacher planning, democratic classroom practices, and a host of other school practices. As a product of the Prussian pattern of school organization (whether we want to admit it or not) our secondary school also copied the organizational pattern of the German culture. The new development toward democratic practices is a realization of the need in our democracy for self-discipline.

I have a friend in Michigan who recently spent some time in Germany. He tells some stories of the newly democratized German schools. There was one about a German music teacher who worked with a group of boys in a German school less than a year ago. There was some time left at the end of the period, and a boy seated at the back of the room wanted to recognize the American visitor. He stood and suggested that the class sing a special song that they had learned and liked to sing. My friend relates that the music teacher immediately reacted by

shouting angrily at the lad, "Das ist verboten, continue. Das ist verboten, continue." Finally the boy stood and said, "It is forbidden to make suggestions."

We wonder why the German people have accepted leadership without question. Add to the authoritarian school pattern "the-papa-is-all" home of Germany and you have the answer.

Now many of you are going to say, "Mr. Lewis isn't practical for we know we must have discipline in our schools; and what is more our parents demand that we have discipline." I do recognize the need for order and authority but at the same time I want self-discipline to be our goal. On a theoretical level, no parent will argue that the police state is superior to a self-regulated democracy. Our concern in secondary schools to involve our students more and more in decisions and controls is vital if our democracy is to work. We need to interpret it to the parents.

Two of the major criticisms that probably brought the Pasadena thing to a head were charges of subversion of parental authority and the undermining of parental influence. Those, you see, can come from not making a clear explanation of what we mean when we say "self-discipline."

COMPETITION AND HOME REPORTS

The third area commented on by our English visitor was our eternal seeking for new kinds of home reports, new kinds of motivations other than marks, and our trials in general reporting to parents. You know the story about what we have done, how we have been seeking to get away from marks purely as a motivating factor. We have tried to have purposeful education, doing everything we could to get some clues as to how we can break away from marks as penalties and rewards. Not that they are necessarily bad, but we

feel that perhaps there is too much inducement in the secondary school just to get marks and not want to improve. You see, that is part of this human relations thing, measuring the kid against himself rather than against the group, getting away from the tremendous disappointment that comes from D's instead of A's. But it isn't being interpreted that way by parents. They say a youngster will be measured by the group when he goes out into the world. He is not always going to be measured against himself. There must be a standard and in our desire to improve the way we work with youngsters we haven't done the job of interpreting it properly to parents.

COOPERATIVE ORGANIZATION

Above everything else, our visitor was most interested in the cooperative organization of our schools. He commented that we had made most of our gains in human relations in the cooperative management of our schools—people working together to develop better ways of leadership. We are talking today about the principal as the leader. We are talking about leaders who work with a staff. We are talking about the cooperative development of policy. In the classroom this means that the teacher is the leader of the group. We are trying to get more and more pupil-teacher planning. We are trying to give kids a stake in the enterprise too. It is good human relations.

If you have ever read Ordway Tead's book, *The Art of Leadership*, you will understand what I am driving at: leadership as a function over and above just being a boss. It hinges on the ideals of our Western Democracy and the Christian principle of the worth of the individual. The right to differ is implicit in it.

You know, in the schools of even thirty years ago one didn't make too

many suggestions. Teachers taught the course of study that came from the front office. They were quite afraid to differ. Neither did the student differ with the teacher very much. If he wanted a good mark (or, in the case of the teacher, a good rating), he fell into the pattern. One didn't buck the system.

Now think what we have done in human relations in the last few years in accepting this right to differ; after all it is a basic American principle. Thomas Jefferson said it well: "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God."

This all ties up with our notions of loyalty and conformity. You don't have to conform to be always loyal. Sometimes loyalty means not conforming. If what is going on is so important to you as a teacher in your own school, and the practices aren't good, maybe you are being more loyal to yourself and to education if you do differ. Do it the right way, of course, but we are building again this basic thing; namely, that in a democracy we must be willing to stand up and be counted.

Now, here again, are parents understanding what we are trying to do? Many like to have strong authority and unquestioned leadership. "The kids don't know, so you tell them what to do." Some parents say, "Don't involve them in these processes of working together." There are too many that we haven't made our interpretations to.

Well, there are many other things that my English friend picked out of the secondary school pattern, but I won't have time to go into all of them. Among them is the misunderstanding about the high school courses that we are starting about understanding ourselves. In the Pasadena Report that is one of the things they were concerned with. Again, if we do not interpret to parents we shall run into trouble.

Inter-cultural relations is another problem area.

The last one that I want to emphasize is this "warm and friendly school" business. The Englishman was quite surprised to find this feeling of wanting to get kids to like to come to school. The teacher as a friend, not fighting the student; the student, not fighting the teacher; the teacher, not fighting the principal; and the principal, not fighting the teacher. It is a push for good human relations and that is our endeavor in most schools—the idea that we aren't rejecting kids but their behavior, while still accepting them as human beings and continuing to work with them.

All these things seemed to this foreign visitor very, very much in the forefront. Then, too, the whole acceptance of the fact that many of our emotional disturbances in adult life come from things that happen to us in our school years, was another. As you know, the medical profession has recognized this in the last ten years in its training program. It is not spending so much time as previously on organic medicine. Functional medicine, how the emotions disturb the body, is being given attention. Medical practitioners can take the whole machine apart organically and put it back together again, but they don't know too much about the emotions as they affect the functions of the machine. They give us support for the things we want to do, but we need to do a better job in interpreting those things to the parents. Parents in many cases still say to the psychologist, "You're crazy. You don't know what you're talking about." Some of the things that the psychologists are talking about are good, and we need to support them.

I want to call to your attention the resemblance between these things I've been talking about and the complaints

of the School Development Council that were put to the Pasadena people. The first was the elimination of scholastic competition, the abolition of grading, the subversion of parental authority, undermining of parental influence, aiding and abetting immorality by classes dealing with the problems of sex instruction.

In relation to this last complaint, I would like to say in passing that it is my personal feeling that we haven't any business involving ourselves generally in sex instruction under present conditions. We ought to be much more involved with parents in helping them with the problem instead.

Now, in closing I would like to say that we have to improve our own competence as individuals in the general field of human relations. We know for sure some things about the nature of man and the human personality. A lot of new information has developed in the last few years that we can get and most of it is pretty well accepted. We are sure that man is malleable. We are sure that man is flexible. If you follow any of the work of the cultural anthropologists, the social psychologists, the group of people characterized by Margaret Mead and Karen Horney, it almost seems self-evident that they are proving to us that man is malleable.

Now, the Progressive Education Association group back in the twenties got all excited about this business of

changing the culture around young children. Their attitude was that if we can just change the culture around these young children, since we are all products of a culture we will have a new generation. They, too, forgot about parents and adults.

Margaret Mead says, that in addition to man by nature being malleable and man by nature being flexible, progressive education people forgot one thing: that man is also elastic. The human personality is elastic and while we may bring children a different culture pattern in school, when we throw them into the pattern of the adult world elasticity soon operates. The elasticity means that one culture pattern simply overcomes the other.

I feel that our job as leaders is to carefully and sanely evaluate all these things that we are so interested in as educators, and then do our job of selling them to the people. I think it will take some courage.

Now finally, I would like to make almost a personal plea that you all read a relatively new book on human relations: *On Being Human*, by Ashley Montagu. In its last chapter, he says that the fourth "R" will be human relations. He has worked with these people who are so concerned with the culture impact on personality. It is a revealing book in stating these things that I have so poorly given you this morning.

CHALLENGES TO SCHOOLS FOR TEACHING IMPROVED FAMILY RELATIONS¹

EVELYN MILLIS DUVALL

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MARRIAGE RATES are booming today. It may be a "cold war," but hearts beat as warm as ever. Since the opening of hostilities in Korea in the early summer of 1950, each month has shown an increase in the number of marriages over the same month of the previous year.

Cupid carries a bazooka these days, it seems. Kiplinger predicts a probable 1,600,000 marriages in 1951, which resembles the prewar 1941 figure. Such high marriage trends tend to hold especially for people still under twenty years of age. The director of counseling of one high school in a comfortable middle class community reports:

We are disturbed by the number of very young girls—fifteen and sixteen year olds—who have been married or are anticipating marriage. Some of our school leaders have also been married this year—one girl, the editor of our school yearbook to an older boy now in his second year in college; the other, a very attractive and popular girl who in her senior year made the decision to be with a former student in our high school at least for the two months he is in camp in the West.

Most of these engagements and marriages are to older boys in military now in other parts of the United States. The majority of marriages among younger girls seem to be escapes from unsatisfactory home situations. Up to date during the current school year, we have had six sophomore girls, twelve junior girls, and eleven senior girls tell us they were leaving school for marriage. We also have several married girls continuing their school-work. (Private communication to the author.)

Even before the "cold war" began, there was a tendency for people to marry at younger ages than formerly. The United States Bureau of the Census reports the median age at first

marriage. In 1890 it was 26.1 years for the man, and 22.0 years for the woman, but by 1947 it had dropped to 23.7 years for the man and 20.5 years for the woman. Estimates indicate that for men under twenty marriages increased by 20 percent in 1950.

The total number ever married has increased considerably since the turn of the century. In 1890 only 63.1 percent of the total population of the United States were among the "ever married" category of the United States Bureau of the Census. By 1949, the percentage of the population ever married had risen to 78.6 percent. The indications are that marriage is increasingly popular in these United States.

There is a baby boom just ahead as birth rates follow the increase in marriages. The Federal Security Agency (March 13, 1951 bulletin) reports that 3,699,000 babies were born in 1950. The prediction is for close to four million babies in 1951, a record possibly even surpassing the all-time high in 1947.

There was a 14 percent rise in population in the last decade bringing the total United States population to about 152,000,000. A 25 percent increase is expected in the next twenty-five years, a challenge in itself to the schools!

Our elementary schools will be jammed for the next five or six years, with the more than twenty million children of school age at the half-century date. High school enrollments down to six and one-half million now, due to the depression decline in the birth rate, will soar by 1958 when there will be more than 26,500,000 children

¹ The first of three addresses on the topic, "Education for Improved Family Relations," before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 29, 1951.

of high school age (representing the high birth rates in World War II). College enrollments will continue to decline sharply with the removal of boys of college age for military service, the draft, and the threat of the draft.

There has been a general tendency toward marked increases in marriage and family instability as seen in the rapid rise of divorce rates through recent decades. Between 1900 and 1940 when the population increased by 73 percent, and marriages increased by 128 percent, divorces increased by 374 percent. Wartime tends to exaggerate these trends as we saw strikingly illustrated in the marriage-divorce ratios through the war years in the mid-forties. The following figures were released by the Bureau of the Census, February 6, 1948:

	<i>Marriages</i>	<i>Divorces</i>
1936-1940	1,430,118	248,000*
1945	1,618,331	502,000
1946	2,300,000	620,000

* Yearly average.

Instability increases in wartime. In no area is this more evident than in marriage and family life. War is tough on families. There are many home-front casualties that must be recognized, predicted and planned for if we as a nation are to meet the challenges of our times.

War tends to increase the problems and hasten the cataclysmic changes already taking place in our complex culture in numerous areas affecting our families but outlined here.

Trends That Increase in Wartime

- 1) Hasty marriages (week-end leaves, furlough weddings, gang-plank marriages)
- 2) Marriage at earlier ages (the teen-age marriage is the riskiest of all)
- 3) People on the move (mass migrations to cities, to the coasts, to industry, to camps)
- 4) Couples separated as men go into service, women into war-work
- 5) Women more independent, with employ-

ment easier, money freer, responsibilities increased

- 6) Crowding and shortages in city-living, doubling-up, shortages in consumer goods
- 7) More babies deprived, and instable as birth rates increase with parents unsettled
- 8) Teen-agers more excited and instable (facing questions of service, jobs, school, morals, along with basic questions of "Who am I?" "What is life?")

In times like these stability of marriage and family life is more important than ever. The men and boys who must leave home more than ever need a stable home base with someone to fight for, to work for, and to come back to when at last they may. More than ever our children need the security of a sound and stable home life that is so essential for their growth into mature, socially sensitive, healthy personalities, capable of making a constructive contribution to a needy world. Fully as significant, our homes hold whatever key there is to brotherhood, to democracy, and to lasting peace as they provide the laboratory experiences for creative living within the fabric of everyday living for their members.

WHAT WILL STABILIZE MARRIAGE AND STRENGTHEN FAMILIES TODAY?

Schools face a peculiar challenge in providing family-life education at every level. Functional teaching starts with the needs, interest, and readiness of the students and teachers at whatever grade or age. Recent research in adolescent development indicates clearly that the questions of high school youth tend to center in such basic considerations as these:

Who am I? Am I normal? What is the matter with me? What do I do? on a date? with my parents? with people generally? How do I understand my feelings? am I in love? how do I know? What does it mean to be a boy? a girl? a man? a woman?

Schools that provide opportunities for students to develop insights into human behavior, personal development, interpersonal relationships, and the processes of family living that lead up to marriage, tell an encouraging story of student response and increased stability, both at the time and in future personal and family adjustments.

With marriages increasingly at younger and younger ages, secondary schools face an urgent challenge of adequate preparation for marriage and family life of their students. This today is seen as far more than the narrow type of "sex education" so understandably criticized. High school youth themselves set a healthy pace when they indicate universal interest in such questions as "How do I know when I am in love?" "Who is for me?" "When am I ready for marriage?" "How do you make sure ahead of time that your marriage will work?"

Personal questions and problems yield best to adequate counseling under the guidance of adequately prepared and accessible counselors. General interpretation of scientific findings stimulates group discussion and clarifies the understandings students crave for themselves, their loved ones, their families, and their times.

Materials for family-life education at the secondary level are appearing

in encouraging quantity and quality. The National Committee on Education for Marriage and Family Living in the Schools has assembled a Teachers Kit covering some forty pieces of material, including announcements of the more usable types of books, pamphlets, films, and modern teaching aids. This is available through the National Council on Family Relations, 1126 East 59th Street, Chicago 37, Illinois, as a service project for beginning teachers in family relations. Teaching methods are demonstrated, discussed, and evaluated annually at the National Conference of the National Council to be held next to the last week in August, 1951, at College Camp, Wisconsin. (The program is available through the Chicago office of the National Council on Family Relations, and appears also in *Marriage and Family Living*, the official journal.)

When family life changes as rapidly as it does in this midcentury era; when the majority of youth are already marriage-conscious at high school age, and will marry soon out of school; and when war adds its toll of divorce and family instability at the very time when we as a people need stable homes more than ever, our schools face a challenge as never before to educate for marriage and family living.

IMPLICATIONS OF EDUCATION FOR IMPROVED FAMILY LIFE FOR SECONDARY SCHOOL PROGRAMS¹

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IN CONSIDERING the problems inherent in family-life education it is well first to identify some underlying concepts which are basic to this area of learning.

1. Families, as our basic institution, set the tone of society. If they are well ordered, well instructed, and well governed, they are the springs which feed the streams of national greatness and prosperity, of civic order and of public and private happiness.

2. The transition young people undergo from adolescence to adulthood is both hectic and confusing. It may also be a period of frustration to youth. Much of this is probably the result of the extremely complex developmental tasks young people face then. Of these the ones most directly concerned with the family living area are:

- a. Accepting the facts of one's physique and learning the appropriate rôle of masculinity or femininity.
- b. Developing desirable new relationships with age-mates of both sexes.
- c. Achieving emotional independence from parents and other adults, as well as accepting or appraising their families in an intelligent manner.
- d. Desiring and achieving for themselves social behavior of a responsible type.
- e. Preparing in the best possible manner for their own marriages and family life.
- f. Building conscious values which are in harmony with the scientific

world picture, therefore can be adhered to.

3. We must realize that young people will receive sex education somehow. Either they will receive it correctly or they will pick it up incorrectly. They also, say what we will, are preparing themselves for marriage somehow. If no provision is made for their getting a sound scientific foundation, they will turn to the movies, radio crooners, or fiction writers for what is offered, which too frequently is misleading if not actually vicious.

4. It is the birthright of every American boy and girl to look forward to a happy marriage and stable family life. While it may be true that some prefer to remain unmarried, each one who seeks happiness in marriage is entitled to all of the help he may require to reach that goal.

5. Good schools do not just happen. They are the result of careful planning and constant improvement. Modern schools have a multitude of tasks to perform. In a frontier society the school was but a supplement to the community in the education of youth. Now the school has been entrusted with the primary responsibility for educating our children. We may deplore this trend but the responsibility cannot be ignored. Both youth and their parents look to the schools to help young people meet the problems of living, thus indicating education for life-adjustment.

It is possible to extend these principles into four aspects of family-life education, examining the four questions: what to teach, when to teach it, how to teach it, and how to administer the program.

¹ The second of three addresses on this theme before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 29, 1951.

The major issue of what should be taught depends upon the goals to be reached. If the contentions developed above are valid, family-life education encompasses three broad areas of life-adjustment education.

1. The first of these is the improvement in personal adjustment and self-realization. This involves an effective interaction within the student's own family for it is well documented that the degree of harmonious adjustment to one's own family has a direct bearing on one's concepts toward marriage and family life. The person whose relationships within his own family have been happy is likely to be willing to work toward making his own marriage successful. From the view of self-realization it is necessary (1) that young people grow in the direction of emancipation from parents, and (2) that they develop those skills which tend to make the family relationship acceptable to all members. This is genuinely "growing into maturity."

2. Maturity is also necessary in inter-personal relationships. More specifically this relates to inter-sex relationships with age mates and direct preparation for marriage itself. Persons need to learn that human associations offer the most enduring types of satisfactions and happiness. They must believe in them so strongly that they are willing to strive to achieve this happiness in successful marriage. This willingness develops from effectively practicing appropriate skills in their relationships with other persons.

Popularly we are plagued with an over-romanticized attitude toward love, courtship, and marriage which is not consistent with actuality. Young people—and some older ones as well—can profit materially from a scientifically intelligent viewpoint toward these practices. Some of the work of our movies, plays, and novels needs to be

overcome in this regard.

Many people expect the impossible of marriage. An enduring marriage can provide satisfactions of the highest personal type, but it also exacts some fundamental disciplines. The values of emotional security and interdependence, rather than the ecstatic-rainbow-hued-life-in-a-rose-covered-cottage concept, need to be emphasized as the genuinely essential elements of a satisfying marriage. Definitely persons looking forward to marriage should be developing the skills of courtship and mate selection. To do this adequately implies that they be aware of and able both before and during marriage to make appropriate use of those practices which tend to insure a happy, successful marriage.

Since children occupy an important place in family living, some insight into parenthood, child care and child training seems to be indicated. If the goal of family life education is continual improvement in family effectiveness this area cannot be neglected. Our society of tomorrow depends upon the children of today.

3. There appears to be need for desirable kinds of sex education. Five such types seem indicated: (1) young people need to have an enlightened understanding of their own sex nature and (2) a mature, responsible attitude toward their sexual functioning on their own developmental level. Further, as persons approach the status of marriage it is desirable that (3) they see sex as a part of a total personality adjustment and (4) thereby be able to understand the place of sex in marriage relationships. (5) From the point of view of personal effectiveness and social mores the development of tenable standards and moral attitudes toward the entire question of sex seems necessary.

The question of when to teach these

types of things is basically a question of practicality. Certainly it is axiomatic that help along these indicated lines must be available when the need is present. The tasks of youth in developing from infancy into adulthood are not confined to the secondary school years. A continuous unified educational program pointed in the direction of effective family living appears to be necessary. The organization of such a program is much easier when the total educational system from nursery or kindergarten to adult educational practices is under the control of one administration, since in some areas of family living help is needed in the very early years, and in some in the relatively later years.

The type of instruction usually encompassed in the term "sex education" can well be included throughout the pre-school, elementary, and high school years. The actual content in any grade level would have to be determined by the maturity and maturation levels of the students involved. However, since growth is a continuing process, the understanding of physiological changes should not be neglected at any stage of development.

In the later elementary grades, junior high school years, and early senior high school years the emphasis may well include increased attention to such topics as getting along effectively with one's family, developing a healthy personality, growing into emotional maturity, and achieving effectiveness in the changing relationships toward other persons, both age-mates and adults. By the nature of these kinds of endeavor there can well be much personal guidance, especially from the twin approaches of mental hygiene and personal efficiency.

In the senior high school years, the activities of boys and girls change rather materially, demanding addi-

tional kinds of help. Furthermore their increased maturation level makes possible more conceptual understanding of themselves. It may well be the time for instruction of such fields as (1) the psychology of adolescence, (2) the appropriate understanding of and skill in the inter-personal processes of dating, love, courtship, and mate-selection, (3) moral standards appropriate both in pre-marriage and post-marriage states, (4) the intelligent appraisal and appreciation of the students' own families and those which they anticipate for themselves, (5) previews of the prevailing and recurring problems found in marriages with suggested methods of dealing with them and, (6) desirable attitudes in men-women relationships both on the level of general social interaction and the more personal one of marriage. Certainly by the time the student reaches the later years of his high school course he should be making definite progress toward emancipation from his family's protectiveness, emotional acceptance of his family as it is, and direction of his own behavior in accordance with these two goals. Furthermore, since it is true that more than 75 percent of our population terminates its formal education at or before high school graduation an introduction to the questions involved in parenthood, child care, and child training appear to be in order on the high school level.

In those communities where there are effective adult programs, help in parenthood problems may be postponed until more nearly the time it would be practically needed. Desirable adult programs for a community also would include family service agencies. There should also be adult classes in family-adjustment problems and in the changing rôles developing in families because of changing conditions, as for example the diverse rôles of wife,

mother, mother-in-law, and grandmother. In many instances the same woman must play all of these rôles successively and in some circumstances must play them simultaneously.

It would be temerity to suggest a particular method of teaching. Practical educators know that methods must be constantly adapted to the learners, the materials, the goals, and the physical equipment for instruction. Good teaching everywhere makes the fullest use of all of the factors of learning.

For the school and teacher wishing to develop such instruction as that herein outlined, we can say it is no longer necessary to blaze a completely new trail. There have been many encouraging experiments in the field, especially on the high school level.¹ In them there has appeared no single set pattern that appears to be best in every situation.

Fortunately also there is developing a body of useful materials for instruction in the form of textbooks, pamphlets, films, film-strips, and the like.²

Certain it is that the guiding principles of learning in the family-life area impose at least four requirements on the school:

1. There must be intelligent understanding of the facts underlying problems in personal effectiveness in interpersonal relationships.

2. There must be provision for help adequate to enable the student to solve his own personal problems with greater skill.

3. There must be opportunity for and assistance in the forming or changing of attitudes so as to be consistent

with the needs of the person in his social relationships.

4. There must be emphasis on the techniques and skills involved in arriving at conclusions based on reflective thinking about complex real-life situations, as for example, the parent-child relationships found in child rearing, or the question of family size as related to personal status and societal implication.

By the implicit nature of this type of learning, it is clear that many of the end-products are caught rather than taught. This implies a particular skill in teaching and a kind of teacher the student desires to emulate. In many of our public schools where the teaching staff is characteristically middle-class, and the school clientele prevailingly upper-class or lower-class, it may be exceedingly difficult for a teacher to engender this desire on the part of his students.

In considering the problems of administering such a program it is evident that the total educational facilities available must be surveyed. However, since many of these areas of need are especially acute during the days of adolescence, it frequently is true that leadership in developing such instruction falls to the secondary schools with subsequent extension into both the lower schools and adult education.

There are, however, particular issues which specifically affect the high school because of its type or organization. Some of these are especially related to the total curriculum organization and some more definitely connected with instruction specifically in the family-life area. As in the case in every true issue there are no categorical answers to these questions but there is developing a body of both experimental and empirical evidence to suggest appropriate methods to pursue.

The major problems respecting the

¹ Lester A. Kirkendall, *Sex Education as Human Relations*. New York: Inor Publishing Co., 1950. Pp. xvi + 351.

² The National Council on Family Relations (Chicago, Illinois) has a Teachers Kit that contains some helpful ideas and leads to these materials.

entire curriculum can be organized around the following issues:

1. What is the best organizational pattern to follow? Should the practice be:
 - a. New units in the existing school subjects?
 - b. New separate courses, and if so, shall they be directed toward subject-matter mastery or personal adjustment improvement?
 - c. A specific section in the core or common learnings program?
 - d. A series of concomitant learnings developed through reference to family life situations in existing school subjects without developing specific units?
 2. Specifically in high schools how can such instruction be included consistent with pupil load requirements and at the same time reach the numbers of students who should be reached?
 3. Should the practice be to seek accreditation and to incorporate such education into a specific school subject; and if so, in what grades is it desirable? In case the materials for a grade level appear inadequate for a full semester of work will fractional credits be honored toward graduation?
 4. Are the best interests of the type of program served by making the instruction elective or prescribed?
 5. Will the community approve this type of instruction? Educators as a group have probably been too pessimistic on this question. Where there is doubt, a good public relations program will assist in getting started.
- The answers to these questions will necessarily vary with the general organization of the school, the policies and practices of the school, the purposes to be served, and the teaching staff available to carry out the educational program.
- Other problems are more directly concerned with specific family-life classes. Some of these pertinent issues are:
1. Should such education be given in segregated classes or will the situation be varied?
 2. Should tests and examinations be required in classes specifically pointed toward wholesome attitudes and personal-adjustment problems, when in practice the utilizing of such devices has a tendency to place subject-matter mastery, defined in terms of "The book says," as the primary objective?
 3. What can be done to bridge the instructional gap between characteristically middle-class teachers' points of view and those of non-middle-class students?
 4. Where can the teachers be found and how shall they be trained?
 5. How can the time necessary for consultation and counseling with individual students be arranged in the already crowded school day?
- Alert administrators have been faced with equally difficult questions in the past and generally have found workable plans. Since this area is one of recent origin, the patterns of development have not yet crystallized. Still the school system that earnestly seeks a way to put into practice functional education pointing to effective family-life adjustment will find ways of achieving its objective. It may be opportune to restate the principle that whatever is educationally sound must be made administratively possible.

HOW SHALL WE PREPARE TEACHERS FOR PARTICIPATION IN FAMILY LIFE EDUCATION?¹

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THE CURRICULUM of the modern college and secondary school is already crowded to such an extent and presents so many problems of coordination that it is not surprising to find administrators of educational systems somewhat resistant to the inclusion of still other new subject-matter. Family-life education, nevertheless, has a great deal to commend it to the educational administrator. It is a subject-matter area in which the school community is vitally interested. Some months ago when I was interviewing President E. W. Jacobsen, of Los Angeles City College, he remarked that members of community groups and civic organizations are beginning to ask embarrassing questions of school men in the face of the widespread prevalence of juvenile delinquency and family disorganization. "What are you fellows doing to promote better family life and to stem this tide of demoralization in our communities?" seems to be their questioning attitude of school men. Jacobsen was chairman of the committee that prepared the Nineteenth Yearbook of the American Association of School Administrators, *Education for Family Life*, and has good background for his remarks, evidently.

Not only does family-life education constitute a strong tie with the community for the school but it also provides a vitalizing force in the school personnel itself. Some subjects that our schools have taught in the past have been vague and remote from the interests of students and sometimes of teachers as well. But this cannot be said

of the living, throbbing areas of family-life education. Educators have in such subject-matter the opportunity to breathe new life into the school curriculum.

Family-life education is already well established in the colleges and universities of the country, something like half of them showing courses in this specific field according to a recent survey by Henry Bowman, of Stephens College, Missouri. The subject also has a fair beginning in the secondary schools, a few high schools, such as in Tulsa, Oklahoma; Phoenix, Arizona and in Highland Park, Michigan; having offered such courses for a dozen years or more. Some school systems, as in Asheville, North Carolina and San Diego, Long Beach and Los Angeles, California, have line administrative officers known as Coordinators of Family Life Education, who bring together and attempt to coordinate and give consistency to all the curricular offerings of the school system in the field of family-living education. This plan has much to commend it. Family life is much more likely to be regarded with the dignity and importance it deserves when the entire school personnel is sensitized to its values than when all the responsibility is concentrated in one or a few teachers of specific courses in family living.

Although important steps have been taken in recent years by colleges and universities to help teachers prepare themselves for teaching family-living subjects, there is still a shortage of teachers who are well prepared in this area. Since this is something of a bottleneck in the development of family-life education, I should like to speak of the

¹ The third of three addresses on this theme before the Commission on Secondary Schools at Chicago, March 29, 1951.

qualifications and preparation of family-life teachers. While most of the qualifications of a good family-living teacher are also appropriate for teachers of any other subject, it is especially important that the teachers in a new movement be well qualified. Because of the nature of the teacher's relationship with students in family-living subjects, it is also more imperative that the teacher have certain qualities in his personality and it is equally important that his educational background be rich in his specific field. I shall discuss the preparation of teachers under three headings: personal qualifications, in-service education, and pre-service education.

PERSONAL QUALIFICATIONS

As to the characteristics of the teacher as a person which seem of imperative importance for teaching family-living I shall speak of three qualities. While these are valuable in the personality equipment of any teacher they are indispensable to good teaching in family-living. Interest in human beings for their own sakes as persons should take first place in such personal qualifications. This human interest will make it relatively easy for the teacher to have a vital personal concern for the students who discuss the family situations common to them and will facilitate his visits into the homes of students to provide a better understanding of the home and family foundations of personality building for students and parents. Evaluation of persons as important in themselves will aid in developing cooperative parent-teacher relationships for attaching on a common home-and-school front the problems of family and school adjustment. Such human interest involves tolerance of students from different home and family backgrounds without belittling them for conditions which

they cannot prevent. One of the valuable cautions brought out in the Kinsey report, *Sexual Behavior of the Human Male*, refers to the frustrations of children from the less-privileged class of our society by teachers predominantly drawn from the middle class. Interest in human beings implies a rather cheerful willingness to go the second mile to encourage and help one under the responsibility of his protection and guidance. It means putting the person above subject-matter outlines and/or favorite methods of teaching.

An old newspaper drawing by a French cartoonist in an early period of unrest in that country of much turmoil hangs on the walls of the corridor in the famous Huntington Library at Pasadena which shows the danger of losing sight of the human values in science and discovery, and incidentally in educational procedure. An astronomer is pictured beside his telescope gleefully gesticulating to a passerby and saying he had just discovered a comet that would strike and destroy the earth in forty-five days. He was so overjoyed with the success of his new instrument in making the discovery of the comet that he could not be concerned with what would happen to human beings. Teachers with human values in mind consider techniques and methods of instruction as secondary. Their supreme purpose is to get through to the person and make the contact that will effect the developmental process of learning and growth by whatever means will be effective. Subject-matter and methods are merely incidentals to facilitate growth of the student-person.

Interest in students for their own sakes on the part of the teacher begets confidence and calls for confidence and loyalty in return. These are essential to a good student-teacher relationship.

Growth potential is a second quality

essential to the teacher of family living. The field is still new from the standpoint of both teaching and scientific knowledge and much is yet to be learned by all of us. The teacher with a "growing edge" to his personality and a growth potential for development has more promise for keeping up with the developing field of family-life education. Growth implies openmindedness, flexibility, adaptability. Growth takes place from within. In this sense teachers cannot be "prepared" by others, including the best institutions of learning. Motivations for growth and development must come from themselves.

A third essential in the personal qualification of the family-living teacher is that he be reasonably well oriented to life in general. A fairly cheerful acceptance of one's own sex rôle, of one's family rôle, and of one's societal rôle is necessary to a reasonably good adjustment to life in general. Experience—work, travel, teaching—that provides contacts with people and a basis for learning and growth adds to one's desirable orientation to life. In Dr. Rachel Dunaway Cox's *Counselors and Their Work* the author finds that those counselors with broad experience in teaching, travel, business, and vocational work were most successful in guiding youth. While marriage and family-life experience will usually beget more confidence in youthful students, marriage in itself can hardly be regarded as a qualifying necessity for secondary school teachers. The attitude toward marriage is more important in the teacher than the mere fact of marriage in itself. Burgess and Cottrell in their *Predicting Success or Failure in Marriage* found that desire for children was more conducive to happiness in marriage than was the fact of having children. This relationship would seem to hold for a desirable

attitude toward marriage in comparison with the fact of marriage. Age of the teacher would seem to be important only as the teacher would be too young to be regarded as mature by the students or too old to be in touch with their problems and needs.

The problem of determining these personal qualifications of potential candidates for positions in family-life education is admittedly not an easy one. The selection of experienced teachers already in the educational system whose relationship with students and fellow faculty members has been observed and is known has its advantages in this respect. If new personnel is chosen for this work, academic records alone would hardly be a reliable basis for selection. Besides the usual letters of recommendation by reliable persons who know the candidate well in a variety of situations, some social-relations observations might be included in the bases for selection. The British have given receptions and social parties to which candidates were invited when being considered for positions in their Marriage Guidance Centers. Their poise and interrelationships with the members of the group would then be taken into account in rating the candidates for positions. Some such plan might work well as a supplementary basis for selection of family-living teachers in our educational programs.

IN-SERVICE EDUCATION

Many of the schools and colleges now giving courses in family living employ teachers who graduated from their college work before family-living courses, as such, were being offered in any extensive measure by institutions for the preparation of teachers. Such preparation of a specialized nature as these teachers have received, therefore, has of necessity been during their

service period as teachers. In-service education has a number of advantages, as well as a few disadvantages. Teachers are available for the family-living program much earlier when they can be drawn immediately, or after short initial preparation, from the existing staff. Interest in family-life subjects, teaching ability, smoothness of rapport with students and staff members on the part of the "potential" family-living teacher are already known to administrators or are easily observable as a basis for determining suitability. It is sometimes a disadvantage to choose the in-service approach because the inclusion of training for family-life instruction merely adds to an already-full teaching load. Then, too, because of being rather fully occupied in teaching, the teacher on the job finds it difficult to secure a broad and thorough grounding in family-life education subjects.

The in-service method of preparation usually means that a teacher in some one of the older, more traditional subject fields who is motivated in the family-life direction and who has the personal qualifications appropriate to family-life teaching is drawn into that field. Her traditional teaching subject, such as home economics, health education, biology, social studies, English, or consumer education, has usually had a small unit which is easily related to family living. This small unit may become increasingly larger and ultimately expand into a full semester course in family life. Such is the history of many of the family-living courses now offered in secondary schools and colleges. Teachers of family-living have also been drawn from the ranks of guidance workers and high-school deans.

Methods of supplementing the family-living teacher's traditional knowledge are fairly well known to

school administrators. They include summer school courses, extension courses, workshops, institutes on family living, interaction with family-life groups, and attendance at community, local, and national conferences on family-life education. One of the best approaches is to be an assistant to a master teacher in family-life education in which the assistant-in-preparation does actual teaching and guidance with sympathetic supervision by the more experienced person. Any adequate preparation for family-life teaching embraces contact with the actual teaching process and the guidance relationship with family-living situations. Successful teaching in any field involves constant criticism and revision of one's procedures so that in-service education becomes a continuous process as long as a teacher is intellectually and professionally alive. Teachers can be "experienced" through proved dependability and increasing adaptability.

PRE-SERVICE EDUCATION

Increasing thought is being given to programs of pre-service education of teachers for family-life education. Adequate pre-service education saves time and effort of the teacher and moves early and directly toward the goal of family-life teaching. Some costly mistakes in experience are also frequently avoided in this way. The cost of learning exclusively by experience is well illustrated by the case of the young would-be oculist who asked an old, experienced, and successful practitioner if it were necessary for the young man to attend medical college inasmuch as the older man had not done so. The latter admitted he had made a success but advised the young man to go to college as "it had cost a bushel of eyes" for him to learn. Yet it is necessary for well-prepared teachers

to have had some experience with actual family situations. It can be secured by practice teaching, counseling students, planning and participating in P.T.A. meetings, or even by baby-sitting as "field work" in family-life education. Some supervised family-life participation should be a required part of the preparation of all family-life education teachers.

Adequate pre-service preparation for family-life education includes a good foundation of general education in biology, sociology, psychology, home economics, physical education, history, economics, and still others according to the student-teacher's inclination and free hours. In addition, these general courses will be pointed up by such specialized courses as the family, consumer economics, adolescent psychology, child development, home management, marriage and the family, psychology of personal adjustment, home architecture, principles of guidance and counseling, human reproduction or sex education (if not included in biology), and the like to make up a major and/or minor according to the preference of the teacher-to-be. The subjects just mentioned were named as those most helpful in preparation for teaching family living by a research study group of eighty-one teachers of family life in the secondary schools of twelve states. Professional courses on teaching and educational method must be included either at the undergraduate or graduate level, or both. These will include not only the usual professional courses required by colleges of education but will comprehend such specialized courses as methods and problems in family-life education, elementary psychiatry, and marriage and family counseling practice. The last two seem essential, not only for the teacher to be able to give guidance in some of the simpler family problem

situations that will never go anyway to more expert professional counsellors, but also that the teacher may possess the information necessary for identifying cases that need to be referred for treatment to the more expertly trained professionals.

The preparation of the teacher is of crucial importance to the success of the educational program. Administrators are important, but they only build the railway up to the gold mine: the teacher does the mining. The intellectual and personality growth of the young persons for whom the educational system exists depends upon the ability of the teacher effectively to get through the intellectual and emotional obstacles our age has interposed between teacher and student. Let us hold the teacher and his task in the esteem they deserve and not stint the background preparation necessary to do a good job.

Our society has done better educationally for the other units of social organization than it has for the simple but fundamental unit—the family. For the state, our large universities have colleges of law and departments of political science; for business and industry, colleges of commerce; for the school, colleges of education; and for the church, seminaries and colleges of religion. But on what campus is there a "college of the family"? More recently a few courses emerged here and there on the subject of family life, with now a few institutions, such as, Teachers College of Columbia University, Ohio State University, Catholic University of America, and Florida State College, offering work leading to advanced degrees in family-life education. We are making progress but the family organization is still woefully neglected and we are reaping the fruits of this neglect in demoralized youth and disorganized family life.

In the fact of our social neglect of the family, thinking people recognize the family as basic to all our other social institutions. James Thurber, of the old *New Yorker*, some years ago gave a telling picture of this dependence of society on the family organization in his tabloidette, *The Last Flower*. In this little volume mankind is pictured as warring and fighting the entire world into complete destruction and desolation. Men are afraid of each other and live in caves and holes in the ground like rabbits. The earth is a waste of ashes and rubble. Only one last little flower remains. A young woman who ventures to walk out over the desolate waste discovers it and admires its beauty. She beckons to a

passing young man and he comes to behold the beauty of the flower with her. They touch hands and love springs up. They marry and establish a home and family. This gives impetus to others to provide materials for the building and furnishing of their home. Others take courage and establish homes and the wheels of industry begin to turn and eventually move back toward normality. Thus at the base of this recovery of civilization family-life provides the impetus.

May we hope the time is not too far away when this humble institution so basic to our civilized existence will have more champions, guides, and defenders in the educational program that must build for the future!

GENERAL LEGISLATIVE NEEDS FOR THE PUBLIC JUNIOR COLLEGE IN THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION AREA¹

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SCRUTINY of general legislative enactments pertaining to the public junior college in the several states of the Union reveals they have followed no systematic pattern of development. Legal action in states contained in the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools is no exception with respect to the public junior college. Some states have no general legislation of this type. Of thirty states in the nation having public junior colleges controlled and governed by a political subdivision less than the state, only twenty-six have general legislative provisions pertaining to public junior colleges. Some of the twenty-six states having general legislation of this kind have but few provisions in many areas of legislation or none at all. This general condition is evidenced among the states included in the area comprising the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools.

Each state has met or failed to meet the demands for public junior colleges by haphazardly groping for legal provisions of a desirable nature. It has been deemed desirable to take an accounting of legal progress to date and to utilize the accumulated experience obtained during the two decades next preceding 1951 for incorporation into future planning. Such action should largely reduce the necessity for continued groping for desirable legislative provisions on a trial and error basis, and it would seem to give direction and continuity to future courses of action. A study to ascertain the value or de-

sirability of existing general legislation pertaining to the public junior college in each state would seem to serve not only to stimulate action in a state where a need may evidence itself, but it would also serve as a guide for states having little or no general legislation for the propagation of the institution. It is not held that legislative provisions in each state pertaining to the public junior college should be identical, for the converse is true. It is thought, however, that certain legislative provisions may be generally desirable and conducive to institutional growth in serving the needs of the community regardless of the locale. Likewise, it is believed that certain types of legislative provisions may generally operate as a detriment to the public junior college in any location with its varying and unique needs.

Before valid recommendations could be made regarding future action for general legislative enactment concerning public junior colleges, it seemed imperative that the existing items of general legislation relating thereto should be analyzed and their desirability ascertained. Desirability of general legislative provisions might well be profitably determined on the basis of current opinion and recent experience.

Information concerning the desirability of existing legal provisions in each state included in the North Central Association pertaining to the public junior college and the location of areas where needed legal attention exists have been provided in a recent nationwide study. The writer, aided by many state departments of education, educational leaders, and administrators of public junior colleges, together with

¹ Although this is an independent study, it applies so pertinently to the Association's interest in the junior college as to merit publication in THE QUARTERLY.—EDITOR.

the cooperation of the Research Division of the American Association of Junior Colleges, has provided a recommended guide for legal action.¹

THE INVESTIGATION

The statutes of every state were examined and the general legislative provisions pertaining to the public junior college were analyzed and classified into sixteen major categories. The general legislative provisions, classified under the several categories, were presented in questionnaire form to all public junior college administrators and to a jury of selected educational experts. Each prospective respondent was asked to rate each item of legislation in terms of its desirability as a legislative enactment concerning public junior colleges according to one of five descriptive phrases; namely,—necessary or essential, important but not essential, contributes little, of no value, and detrimental. Each descriptive phrase was carefully defined to decrease the possibility of more than one interpretation of each by the respondent. A return of slightly more than 65 percent was realized from the public junior college administrators, and a return of 80 percent was obtained from a selected jury of leading educational authorities interested in or working with the public junior college.

States comprising the North Central Association contain 44 percent of all public junior colleges operating under general legislative provisions. This is much the largest percentage of those institutions contained in a regional accrediting association area. Returns from 70 percent of the total number of public junior colleges operating under general legislative provisions in this

area were realized. Replies to the study were obtained from at least 50 percent of the junior colleges in each state of the North Central Association excepting Oklahoma. One may well conclude that much general interest was evidenced by the study in an area containing the greatest number of the institutions. It is because of the commendable attitude and professional interest exemplified by educators in the Association area that further attention is given here to specific application of the findings to general legislative provisions found in the statutes of those states pertaining to the public junior college.

A numerical value, derived from a weighted rating scale recommended by the respondents to the study, was assigned each descriptive phrase. The mean weighted rating concerning each of the 137 items on the questionnaire was obtained for administrators and for educational authorities responding. Each state's school laws were again analyzed for general legislative provisions pertaining to public junior colleges. Each provision found was given a rating corresponding to the mean evaluation obtained for administrators and educational authorities to a like item on the questionnaire. Mean evaluations in terms of the criteria evaluated by administrators and educational experts were obtained for each state's *total* number of general legislative provisions with which the study was concerned and for such legislation in *each area or phase* of legislation. Provisions receiving mean ratings of 2.6 to 3.0 were thought to have been rated "necessary or essential" and those with mean ratings of 1.6 to 2.5 inclusive were thought to have indicated that provisions were rated as "important but not essential." Provisions receiving mean ratings of 0.6 to 1.5 inclusive

¹ R. J. Young, "Junior College Prospects and a Guide for Its Legal Propagation," *Junior College Journal*, XXI (April, 1951), 444-52.

were classified as having been rated as "contributes little," and ratings of -0.4 to 0.5 signified the item was of "no value." Mean ratings of less than -0.5 were felt to be definitely "detrimental."

LEGISLATIVE NEEDS IN THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION

Eight of the twenty states formerly contained in the North Central Association

(4) and (5) are not to be interpreted as indicating only the desirability of legislative provisions in the statutes of those states in the several areas or categories studied. The mean ratings for all states have been obtained by a summation of the mean ratings for all provisions in each area of legislation and divided by the total number of states in the North Central Association. The mean weighted rating for all

TABLE I
PRESENCE OF LEGISLATIVE PROVISIONS AND MEAN WEIGHTED RATINGS

Area, Phase, or Category of Legislation*	Number of States		All States in North Cen. Assn.		Only States with Legis. Prov. in N.C.A.	
	With	Without	Admin.	Experts	Admin.	Experts
(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)
Requirements for Establishment...	9	.3	1.9	1.6	2.6	2.1
Procedure for Dist. Formation....	12	0	2.6	2.6	2.6	2.6
Dist. Formation.....	3	9	0.6	0.6	2.4	2.3
Organization and Discontinuance..	4	8	0.9	0.9	2.6	2.5
Technical Points Concerning Elec- tions and Petitions.....	9	3	2.2	2.2	2.9	2.5
Bldg. and Equip.....	2	10	0.3	0.2	1.7	1.5
Gov't., Control and Supervision...	11	1	1.8	2.3	2.1	2.5
Inspection and Accreditation.....	4	8	0.9	0.8	2.5	2.3
Finance (State Aid).....	4	8	0.9	0.9	2.7	2.6
Finance (County and Dist. Tax) ..	8	4	1.4	1.3	2.2	2.0
Finance (Tuition and Fees).....	10	2	1.3	0.8	1.6	1.0
Other Finance.....	8	4	1.6	1.7	2.3	2.5
Curriculum.....	10	2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.5
Admission and Graduation.....	5	7	1.0	0.7	2.3	1.6
Faculty.....	11	1	2.0	1.7	2.2	1.9

* Categories of Miscellaneous and Transportation Finance have been consolidated under the heading of Other Finance, hence 15 rather than 16 categories.

ciation [Wyoming formally withdrew in March, 1951. Ed.] have no general legislative provisions pertaining to the public junior college, and twelve do have. Table I indicates the number of states having provisions in each area or phase of legislation. The mean weighted ratings for all states in the North Central Association found in columns

states represents a relative index of both quality and number of provisions in each of the areas. Such an index may be utilized to discover areas of legislation where attention may be advantageously given to the enactment of additional provisions or the critical examination of present ones.

The mean weighted ratings in

columns (6) and (7) for only states in the North Central Association having legislation of a type with which the study is concerned indicate the value or desirability of existing provisions relating to various areas of legislation.

Data shown in Table I reveal that, in general, legal attention has not been given through legislative enactment to provisions pertaining to district formation, organization and discontinuance, inspection and accreditation, state aid and county taxation for junior college purposes, or admission and graduation. The states having legislative provisions pertaining to these areas of concern have been judged to have items that are "necessary and essential" or "important but not essential." One could conclude that the provisions that do exist in a few states pertaining to these general areas or phases of legislation are of a desirable nature according to the educational authorities and administrators participating in the study.

Further examination of Table I reveals that general legislative enactment has been concerned but little with provisions relative to buildings and equipment, the curriculum, and tuition. Only a few states of the North Central Association for Colleges and Secondary Schools have existing provisions concerning those areas of legislation. Existing items of legislation in those areas have been judged to be of less general value than may be desirable. States having such provisions might profitably examine them and question their desirability, giving cognizance to any unique local conditions. Existing legal provisions pertaining to curriculum and tuition in some states have actually been judged as generally detrimental.

Close agreement is evidenced between the consensus of public junior college administrators and educational

experts regarding the desirability of existing legislative provisions for each of the states contained in the Association. Close agreement is found also concerning the areas of legislation where more attention may well be given to providing future enactment as a legal basis for the continued growth and development of the public junior college in states of the North Central Association.

The only discrepancy of note between the results of administrators' and experts' consensus is manifested regarding provisions relating to tuition. The consensus for both groups exhibits a general negatory attitude toward enactments authorizing or requiring tuition or fees of persons enrolled in daytime, evening, extension, or Saturday classes. Administrators, more than experts, were inclined to favor provisions requiring tuition and fees of persons enrolled. The discrepancy further emphasizes the need for educators and legislators to give more legal attention to legislative enactment in the area of finance for the public junior college.

From the above analysis, it seems the most imperative needs for legal attention in the North Central Association are exhibited in areas of legislation concerning tuition, curriculum, and buildings and grounds. The following suggestions may well serve as a guide for further general legislative enactment pertaining to those areas of need.

RECOMMENDED GUIDE FOR AREAS OF GREATEST NEED

Tuition and fees.—The answers to questions of tuition and fees depend on the total financial picture in the schools of a given state. One thing is evident: namely, that public junior colleges should be tuition free or as nearly so as possible, and no items of legislation

which would authorize or require tuition are thought to be desirable. No tuition should be charged except to other districts for cost of educating their pupils, for the local district should not carry the financial load for adjacent and contiguous districts.

Close agreement of opinion is found among both administrators and educational experts with respect to two types of legislative enactments pertaining to tuition and fees. Both groups concur that in enacting legislation it is necessary or essential to have a stipulation authorizing any type of high school, school, or county to pay tuition of students living in the district or county who attend a junior college outside the district or county if such county or district maintains no junior college or junior college courses. Another type of enactment stating that school districts not included in an area maintaining a junior college should have power to pay tuition in whole or in part for regular students attending college elsewhere is thought to be less desirable to a slight degree than the former. In operation, the latter type of enactment might be construed to mean tuition in part only. It might also allow tuition for regular students attending any four-year college and is not as definite as the former item.

The variance of opinion concerning other items of legislation relating to tuition and fees is of considerable magnitude, but it is generally similar for the administrators and educational experts who expressed their opinions. Although administrators have tended to rate items higher than experts concerning requirements of tuition from the individual, members of both groups believe that a law requiring tuition of all students is generally detrimental or of no value.

Even though it is thought to be

generally undesirable to enact legislation requiring or authorizing individual tuition fees, if such items are deemed necessary in a given state, some types of legislation are a bit more desirable than others. A stipulation that tuition may be charged is thought to be a more desirable type than one authorizing tuition not to exceed a specified limit. An item of legislation authorizing but not requiring tuition for persons attending evening, extension, or Saturday classes is more desirable than one requiring tuition of persons enrolled in the classes. Tuition authorized for the maintenance of adult classes should not exceed the estimated cost to the district per student for maintaining the class, and it is important but not essential that a specification be written into law to effect this action. If the specification is absent, efforts to satiate adult educational needs may be severely curtailed. Abnormally high tuition fees exceeding the actual cost of the course might be charged in the attempt to secure some needed revenue for other purposes. If fees are charged of the individual, the governing body of any district authorized to establish a junior college should be authorized by law to fix and collect them.

Legislation should require persons not residing within a district maintaining a junior college to be charged a tuition fee higher than that requested of residents, if the individual is to be charged tuition. An enactment allowing the admittance of persons not residing within such a district subject to the same fees as are those persons residing within the district is deemed to be of little value.

Curriculum.—There seems to be little variance of opinion concerning the most desirable type of legislative enactment pertaining to curricular course offerings. A stipulation should provide

that the course of study should be designed to meet the needs of the pupils in the 13th and 14th grades and may include courses of instruction which will prepare for admission to the upper division of a higher institution of learning. A provision of this nature is thought to be necessary or essential. Items of legislation specifying that a general, technical, semi-professional and/or vocational or terminal curriculum may be offered in addition to an academic curriculum, or assigning authority for prescribing the course of study to the board of education are thought to be somewhat less desirable than the former one. Either of the latter two provisions, however, are necessary or important if the former type of provision does not exist.

Several types of general legislative provisions which are definitely detrimental or of no value may be enacted to provide for the course of study offered. Probably the most undesirable type of enactment is one specifying course offerings. Stipulations that all junior-college courses should be of college grade or that additional branches beyond the high school to be taught should be determined by the voters at an election are detrimental or of no value. Although considerable variance of opinion was noted concerning the desirability of two other types of items, both are generally thought to be of no value or to contribute little. One item would assign authority for prescribing the course of study to the state board and/or superintendent of public instruction. The other would stipulate that the course of study should be approximately equivalent to that of the first and second years of an accredited four-year college.

There is close agreement that a legal stipulation *authorizing* the institutions of higher learning in the state to accept

grades and credits earned in legally authorized junior colleges within the same state is necessary or essential. A consensus, but with much variance of opinion, was found to indicate that compulsion resulting from an item of legislation *requiring* the grades and credits earned in legally authorized junior colleges within the same state to be accepted by institutions of higher learning is not generally desirable.

Other legislative provisions relating to the curriculum thought to be generally desirable relate to the scope of offerings. Junior colleges should not offer more than two years of work beyond completion of the standard course of study authorized in accredited senior high schools. A provision should exist enabling a junior college to include grades 11 and/or 12 with grades 13 and/or 14. Such a provision will legally authorize a two-, three-, or four-year plan of organization and provide legal means for change which is flexible enough to take care of such factors as changing population trends and building facilities. Saturday classes and classes for adults to be maintained in connection with day or evening junior colleges should be authorized by law. Extension courses and evening or night classes should be authorized by legislative provision for both high-school graduates and non-graduates. A stipulation authorizing the course for high-school graduates only is generally undesirable and may be detrimental.

Much variance of opinion is exhibited concerning an item of legislation enabling the governing board of any school district authorized to maintain a junior college to contract with the director of education for the maintenance of a junior college in a state college situated in the same district. The consensus is that such an item contributes little, but the tendency is to favor such

a provision. Perhaps the desirability of such a provision would depend much upon the local conditions within a given state. In any event, the danger that such a junior college would be merely preparation for senior college would be imminent.

Although public junior-college administrators and educational experts rendering opinions on items pertaining to the curriculum agreed upon those previously mentioned, differences of opinion were evidenced concerning two types of provisions. Administrators feel that, in general, it is desirable for the law to define a credit hour and to specify the minimum number of actual teaching days for junior colleges or junior-college classes. Authorities have indicated that the former type of provision is of no value and may be detrimental, and that the latter type contributes little. The differences of opinion might possibly be attributed to the problems in this area which arise in actually administering the program in localities where no provision is made to clarify certain issues arising from lack of adequate agreement and understanding on these points. Authorities seem to feel that, although such matters should be settled, they are not legal matters and should be defined by regulations or standards of an accreditating agency rather than being written into law.

Buildings and equipment.—Desirable legislative enactment should provide a stipulation requiring the state board of education and/or state superintendent of education to approve buildings in which junior colleges are housed. When left to their own devices, local boards and superintendents are likely to commit many unwise acts in building a physical plant. Standards should be available to them and their plans should be approved by a state author-

ity, provided the plans embody recognized standards. A department of school planning in the State Department of Education may be one of the most useful divisions of the department in a state. The practice of donating outmoded inadequate physical plants to the public junior college in certain areas where new senior or junior high-school buildings are constructed must be counteracted with appropriate minimum standards specified by the state agency.

The state board and/or state superintendent of education should be required by law to determine standards for junior-college libraries and laboratories. Minimum standards for junior-college libraries, laboratories, or for buildings in which junior colleges are housed should not be stated in the law. Such provisions are generally thought to be of no value or detrimental for they tend toward rigidity. A provision relegating authority for determining standards for junior-college libraries, laboratories, or buildings to the local board of education or board of trustees is not thought to be generally desirable, for they are not usually cognizant of the needs.

APPLICATION OF RECOMMENDATIONS

It is hardly likely that educators and legislators would desire to ignore entirely the accumulated experience of the recent two decades when providing a proper legal basis for the public junior college. The day for abolishing many restrictive legal birth controls is here. As increasing demands for more educational opportunity by a democratic citizenry occur, the need for providing adequately for the public junior college by improved types of legal enactment will become more critical. Those persons who use the recommendations contained in this

article as a guide for improving some existing legal provisions that may be found to operate in an undesirable way or to provide the proper initial legal provisions are given appropriate caution. Legislative items included in the study pertaining to the areas discussed are taken from existing provisions in the statutes. It is possible that a legislative provision differing from any enacted to date might con-

ceivably be of greater value in accomplishing a given purpose, and this possibility should never be excluded. It is hoped, however, that the identification and analysis of certain legislative needs in states of the North Central Association and the recommendations for desirable ways to meet those needs will serve to assist the general progress of education in that area.

THE USE AND VALUE OF G.E.D. TESTS FOR COLLEGE ENTRANCE OF VETERANS OF THE ARMED FORCES¹

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NEAR THE CLOSE of World War II colleges began to be faced with the problem of admission of veterans of the Armed Forces who had not graduated from, or in some cases had not attended, high school. In 1945 Rolfe (5) predicted that the colleges and universities of the country were soon to face the task of orienting one million veterans who planned to enter college regardless of whether they were high-school graduates.

In 1944 Sackett (6) stated that the most valid instrument for determining fitness of non-high-school graduates to pursue specific courses would be a carefully guided and observed trial in the chosen curriculum. Tests of General Education Development (G.E.D. tests), however, soon came into quite common usage. One stated purpose for their development was to assist schools in the appropriate placement in a program of general education, of the students returning from military service. The experiences of colleges and universities during the past five years indicate that it is perhaps logical to assume that entrance on the basis of satisfactory completion of G.E.D. tests has been the most common means of college entrance for non-high-school-graduate veterans.

Most of the colleges and universities of this country have admitted non-high-school graduates on the basis of G.E.D. tests during the past seven years and by this date most of these persons have already succeeded or failed. Available studies of their achievements indicate general success.

The following are indicative of the types of studies which have been made.

Roeber (4) compared the college achievement of veterans admitted to college on the basis of G.E.D. tests to the achievement of regular high school graduates. This study was conducted at Kansas State Teachers College. Roeber concluded that achievement of non-high-school-graduate veterans admitted on the basis of G.E.D. tests was not quite so high as that of regular high school graduates, but that the achievement was sufficiently high, in the opinion of the admissions committee, to warrant the continued use of G.E.D. tests for college admission purposes.

Stinson (7), in a study at Colorado A. and M. College to determine what factors should be considered in predicting the college success of non-high-school graduates, found that, of the criteria used, the G.E.D. test is the best for predicting first-quarter grade-point averages for non-high-school graduates. The study was concerned with thirty non-high-school-graduate veterans admitted on the basis of G.E.D. tests (35-45 standard score plan). The first-quarter grade-point average of these thirty veterans was below that of the student body average (1.940 to 2.359).

The sample group in a study by Crawford and Burnham (1) was 135 members of the freshman class at Yale, July, 1944. They represented about one-third of the class. The purpose of the study was to determine the relationship of G.E.D. tests to first-term grades. The author concluded that, for this sample, the G.E.D. test scores correlated as well with the fresh-

¹ Sponsored by the Cooperating Committee on Research of the Commission on Secondary Schools.

man first-term average grades in all courses as did the average of all College Board tests.

Hartung (3), of the University of Tennessee, studied students failing to do satisfactory work at the Junior College, Martin, Tennessee. He found that among veterans who had entered the junior college on the basis of G.E.D. tests only fourteen out of fifty-nine remained in the junior college and only five continued to four-year institutions. He found that grades made by these veterans were much lower than three other groups: namely, women students, high-school-graduate veterans and non-veterans. He concluded that G.E.D. tests have not ordinarily proved to be a satisfactory substitute for high school work.

Dressel and Schmid (2) encountered the usual difficulty in obtaining desired data but did complete a most comprehensive survey of the literature in the area of G.E.D. tests and also contacted individuals, schools, colleges, industries, and other agencies. They have treated such items as (1) origin and development of the tests, (2) validity and reliability, (3) security, (4) acceptance of tests for employment, and (5) subjective reactions and conclude that the high-school level G.E.D. testing program has met admirably the purposes for which it was intended, including the award of high-school diplomas, the determination of educational level, and the award of credit. If present emergency conditions continue, they conclude that the program should be continued in essentially the same manner.

Many educators vitally interested in the problem, however, have contended that these studies are not sufficiently comprehensive and that they relate only to the "early crop" of veterans who possessed most of the qualities necessary for college success. They have

further contended that the "later crop," who enrolled only in sufficient time to meet the dead line under the "G. I. Bill of Rights," have not, in the main, possessed these qualities and that, although having passed the G.E.D. tests, they have not achieved sufficient success as college students.

Since the success of the use of tests of general education development for purposes of college entrance depends greatly upon the cooperation of secondary-school and college administrators, and directors or supervisors of state education programs, it is apparent that the opinions of such persons cannot be entirely overlooked. Among available studies only that of Dressel and Schmid (2) considers the opinions or judgments of those cooperating in G.E.D. testing programs. Dressel and Schmid concede the importance of this judgment factor in stating that any evaluation of such a program should be based primarily on the later success of those recognized by the program, but that it should also consider the judgments of those cooperating in the program.

The following paragraphs, therefore, report an opinion or judgment study conducted under the auspices of the Committee on Cooperation in Research of the Secondary Commission, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools. The study was limited to the nineteen states of the North Central area and summarizes the opinions of the directors or supervisors in charge of G.E.D. testing programs in their respective state education departments. It also includes the opinions of the members of the Secondary Commission of the North Central Association who were, at the time of the study, administrators directly in charge of secondary schools. The opinions obtained relate to policies and procedures used in the various states,

and to such items as strengths and weaknesses of the tests, administrative procedures in giving the tests, testing agencies, the giving of high school credit and diplomas on the basis of the tests, and the apparent success of those who have used the tests for college admission. The information was obtained through the use of an opinion questionnaire to which eighteen of the nineteen directors (94.7 percent) and sixty-one of the seventy-six administrators responded (80.3 percent).

STATE POLICIES AND PROCEDURES

At the present time each of the nineteen states of the N.C.A. area operates some type of state program for the administration of G.E.D. tests under the supervision of its state department of education. Seven of eighteen state directors reporting (38.8 percent) indicate that some revision of their state programs will be necessary in order to care for future developments in the use of G.E.D. tests. Most of these changes are minor and relate to items designed to facilitate the entrance into the program of veterans drawn into the Armed Forces as a result of the Korean conflict. Ten of eighteen directors (55.5 percent) indicate that their present state programs will be satisfactory to care for all foreseeable future developments. These facts seem to indicate that the various state programs can continue to operate satisfactorily with only minor changes and adjustments and that, in most states, the veterans of the Korean War, and possible future wars, will be eligible for the same benefits as previous veterans.

Twelve of seventeen state directors (70.5 percent) hold the opinion that each state education agency should operate a program or system of G.E.D. testing by which it would give and/or authorize local school districts to give

high school diplomas upon the basis of G.E.D. tests. Two state directors (11.8 percent) indicated that each local school district should be free to do as it chooses without any state regulation and uniformity. Only one state director indicated that neither credit nor diplomas should be granted on the basis of G.E.D. tests.

The administrators in charge of local secondary schools were generally in agreement with the state directors regarding state programs. Forty-four of sixty-one reporting (72.1 percent) stated that they thought it desirable for each state education agency to operate a program or system whereby it would give and/or authorize local schools to give diplomas upon the basis of such tests. Five administrators (8.2 percent) thought it desirable that each local school district should be free to do as it chooses without any state regulation or supervision. Nine of sixty-one administrators (14.4 percent), however, stated that neither credit nor diplomas on the basis of G.E.D. tests should be given.

TESTING AGENCIES

The state directors and local school

TABLE I
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF STATE DIRECTORS
INDICATING CERTAIN TESTING AGENCIES
AS SATISFACTORY

Agency	Num- ber Approv- ing	Per- cent Approv- ing
USAFI.....	14	77.8
Local high schools.....	6	33.3
Colleges and universities.....	10	55.5
State Department of Education.....	4	22.2
Veterans Administration guidance centers.....	10	55.5
Veterans Testing Service, Chicago, Illinois.....	7	38.8
Other.....	5	27.7

administrators were in general agreement regarding the testing agencies which, in their opinions, should be approved for the giving of G.E.D. tests. A few from each group expressed dissatisfaction at the number of different agencies giving tests and some complained of laxity in the administration of the tests and attributed this chiefly to the large number of testing agencies. Table I indicates the number and percent of state directors favoring the recognition or approval of certain testing agencies by the state department of education as being satisfactory agencies for the giving of tests.

Table II shows the number and percent of high school administrators who believe that certain testing agencies can justifiably be approved or recognized for the giving of G.E.D. tests.

TABLE II
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS INDICATING CERTAIN
TESTING AGENCIES AS
SATISFACTORY

Agency	Num- ber Approv- ing	Per- cent Approv- ing
USAFI.....	38	62.3
Local high schools.....	20	32.8
Colleges and universities.....	36	59.0
State Departments of Education.....	38	62.3
Veterans Administration guidance centers.....	22	36.0
Veterans Testing Service, Chicago, Illinois.....	13	21.3
Other.....	4	6.6

It should be noted that both groups favor USAFI and colleges or universities more strongly than other agencies. Both groups, however, seem somewhat satisfied with the testing done in Veterans Administration guidance centers. It will be noted also that, whereas secondary administrators regard the

TABLE III
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF STATE DIRECTORS
INDICATING WEAKNESSES IN THE USE
OF G.E.D. TESTS

Weaknesses	Num- ber	Per- cent
Minimum standard scores too low.....	11	61.0
Minimum standard scores too high.....	1	5.6
Test items too easy.....	5	27.7
Test items too difficult.....	0	0.0
Administrative procedures too lax.....	6	33.3
Administrative procedures too rigid.....	1	5.6
Other.....	2	11.1

testing of state departments of education rather highly, only a small percentage of the state directors favored testing by this agency. (It may be that these directors were quite modest about sanctioning their own administration and supervision of testing programs.)

ADMINISTRATION OF TESTS

It can be noted by comparing Table III and Table IV that both groups concerned in the study were in quite

TABLE IV
NUMBER AND PERCENT OF HIGH-SCHOOL
ADMINISTRATORS INDICATING WEAK-
NESSES IN THE USE OF
G.E.D. TESTS

Weaknesses	Num- ber	Per- cent
Minimum standard scores too low.....	46	75.4
Minimum standard scores too high.....	0	0.0
Test items too easy.....	29	47.5
Test items too difficult.....	0	0.0
Administrative procedures too lax.....	22	36.0
Administrative procedures too rigid.....	0	0.0
Other.....	10	16.4

TABLE V

ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS TOWARD GRANTING CREDIT
AND DIPLOMAS ON THE BASIS OF G.E.D. TESTS

High-School Credit			High-School Diploma		
Attitudes	Number	Percent	Attitudes	Number	Percent
Fully satisfied.....	0	0.0	Fully satisfied.....	0	0.0
Generally satisfied.....	28	45.9	Generally satisfied.....	19	31.1
Dissatisfied.....	22	36.0	Dissatisfied.....	27	44.3

general agreement regarding certain commonly-expressed criticisms or weaknesses of G.E.D. tests. A majority of both groups believe that the minimum standard scores commonly used are too low. Although a few states require higher minimum standard scores, most states operate on the 35-45 minimum standard-score plan. A smaller number of complaints seemed to come from states using higher passing scores. The practice of some colleges in requiring higher scores was commended.

A seemingly significant number from each group also indicated that administrative procedures generally used in giving the tests are too lax. A few from the administrator group indicated that any persistent candidate could eventually find a testing agency from which he could obtain a passing score.

HIGH SCHOOL CREDIT AND/OR
DIPLOMAS ON THE BASIS
OF TESTS

The practice of allowing the successful completion of G.E.D. tests to suffice for a full four years of high-school work seems quite common among the various states. A few states, however, require the completion of four, eight or twelve units (one, two, or three years) of work before allowing the passage of G.E.D. tests to suffice for completion of the high-school diploma. It appears that most high-school administrators do not object to the award-

ing of a certain amount of high-school credit on the basis of G.E.D. tests but that many of them object to the awarding of diplomas wherein the G.E.D. test is used in lieu of the entire four years of work. Of the sixty-one secondary administrators reporting, none was "fully satisfied" with a program of awarding either credit or diplomas on the basis of passage of these tests. However, twenty-eight (45.9 percent) were "generally satisfied" with the awarding of credit and twenty-two (36.0 percent) were "dissatisfied" with this practice. They were less opposed to the giving of credit than to the giving of diplomas, however, because only nineteen (31.1 percent) expressed themselves as being "generally satisfied" with the practice of giving full diplomas whereas twenty-seven (44.3 percent) expressed themselves as being "dissatisfied" with the practice. These figures are shown in Table V.

When asked whether they thought (through contacts and discussions) that the high-school administrators of their respective states were satisfied with the issuance of credit and/or diplomas on the basis of G.E.D. tests the state directors responded as shown in Table VI. It will be noted that the directors reported on the administrators' opinions in a similar fashion that the administrators reported on their own opinions, except that the administrators evidently were slightly more

TABLE VI

OPINIONS OF STATE DIRECTORS CONCERNING ATTITUDES OF HIGH-SCHOOL ADMINISTRATORS
TOWARD GRANTING CREDIT AND DIPLOMAS ON THE BASIS OF G.E.D. TESTS

High-School Credit			High-School Diploma		
Estimated Attitude	Number	Percent	Estimated Attitude	Number	Percent
Fully Satisfied.....	0	0.0	Fully Satisfied.....	0	0.0
Generally Satisfied.....	9	50.0	Generally Satisfied.....	8	44.4
Dissatisfied.....	5	27.7	Dissatisfied.....	6	33.3

dissatisfied than the directors thought they were.

COLLEGE SUCCESS OF NON-GRADUATE VETERANS

Of the eighteen directors reporting, twelve (66.7 percent) thought that non-high-school-graduate veterans had done satisfactory work in college. Only seventeen (27.9 percent) of the administrators, however, thought that the veterans admitted on the basis of G.E.D. tests had done satisfactory college work. The additional comments made and the cases cited indicated that many of this group were generalizing on the basis of specific cases which claimed their immediate attention.

CONCLUSIONS

It appears that directors or supervisors of the state programs and school administrators directly in charge of secondary schools hold very similar opinions regarding G.E.D. tests and the manner in which such tests should be administered. Although the latter seem somewhat more critical, both groups indicate rather clearly that:

1. Each state education agency should operate a G.E.D. testing program whereby it will give and/or authorize local schools to give high-school credit, diplomas or certificates to veterans who have successfully completed such tests. Each local school district should have the right to determine its own policies within the frame-

work of the state program and using the state program requirements as minimum requirements. This will effect both the desired uniformity of practice and local autonomy.

2. Minimum passing scores should be raised. The 35-45 standard-score plan should be raised to perhaps 40-45 or 45-50.

3. Administrative procedures in giving G.E.D. tests should be "tightened up." A specific means of doing this was the elimination of some testing agencies. It was also suggested that all test results be forwarded to the local high schools concerned (both for those who passed and those who failed), the claim being that otherwise unknown to the local school, the person tested could fail two or three times before finally finding some way to make a passing score.

5. Some high-school experience (from one to three years was recommended) should be required. In other words the passing of the G.E.D. tests should not suffice for a full four years of high-school work.

6. The G.E.D. tests should not be allowed to become competitive with regular high school attendance. Some suggested that diplomas should not be granted at an earlier age than twenty or twenty-one years. Withholding the diploma until the time when the high-school student would normally have graduated does not seem to be quite satisfactory.

Since it is quite likely that for some time the use of G.E.D. tests for purposes of college admission of non-high-school graduates will continue to be recognized, the above conclusions should be worthy of consideration by those working on both the state and local levels in evaluating or revising present policies and practices. Close cooperation of all concerned will be

necessary to make the program of high-school level G.E.D. testing function. Opinions of those cooperating in the program vary but there is somewhat general agreement that the program with the above revisions should be continued for the awarding of high-school credit and diplomas to veterans of the Armed Forces.

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STANDARDS FOR PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE REPUBLIC OF THE PHILIPPINES

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IN THE REPUBLIC of the Philippines, under present conditions, less than 10 percent of the elementary education, but approximately 50 percent of the higher education is given in private schools. Many of the better private schools are conducted under Christian auspices, either Catholic or Protestant, but a large and increasing number are proprietary institutions, including universities, operated for the profit of their owners and supported almost entirely by fees paid by the students. Under such circumstances, therefore,

To offset this tendency and to endeavor to guarantee to the public that reasonable academic standards will be maintained, the Philippine government has established the Bureau of Private Schools in the Department of Education whose function is to supervise all private schools in the Republic and to encourage maintenance of reasonable standards in them. The bureau is supported, for the most part, by payments from the private schools of 1 percent of the fees which they collect from their students.

TABLE I
NUMBER OF PRIVATE SCHOOLS IN THE PHILIPPINES

Year	Total	Kinder-garten	Elemen-tary	Second-ary	Special Vocational	Collegiate
1940-41.....	884	129	314	354	—	87
1945-46.....	691	61	137	297	41	105
1948-49.....	2,125	142	483	786	418	296
1949-50.....	1,898	145	466	775	223	289
1950-51.....	2,290	112	508	929	364	377

the tendency is strong to increase teaching loads beyond reasonable limits, to increase class size, and to economize unduly on libraries and on laboratory and other equipment.

EDITOR'S NOTE: After serving for four years as Adviser on Higher Education in Japan, as indicated in the heading of this article, the author resigned in March, 1951, to study educational conditions in other countries of Asia, Australasia, Africa, and Europe. He is well known in North Central circles, having been coordinator of the Cooperative Study of Evaluative Criteria from 1935 to 1939.

The information upon which this article is based was furnished by Dr. Manuel L. Correón, Director of Private Schools of the Republic of the Philippines, during the author's visit to the Philippines in March and April, 1951. It is published in *THE QUARTERLY* because of the continuing educational relations between the Philippines and the United States.

The Director of the Bureau, since the liberation from the Japanese Occupation in 1944, has been Dr. Manuel L. Correón who secured his doctor's degree from the University of Nebraska thirty years ago. While there he earned membership in Phi Beta Kappa. He subsequently did graduate work at the University of Chicago and Columbia University. Before the war he was connected with the public school system of the country.

The growth in number of private schools to meet in part the educational needs of this new nation of almost twenty million people is shown by the following summary of the number of

the five types of private schools for the last prewar year and for four postwar years.

The 377 institutions classified as "collegiate" in 1950-51 are well distributed throughout the Islands, all but three of the forty-nine provinces being represented. Fourteen of the group, of which ten are in the capital city of Manila, are designated as "universities." Seventy more bear the

versity, is the only institution which offers work leading to the doctorate. The University of the Philippines is the only state or national university, but it does not offer work beyond the Master's level.

For the same five years summarized above, a summary of enrollments in these same private schools is shown in Table II.

In 1949-50, there were 14,659 teach-

TABLE II
ENROLLMENT IN PRIVATE SCHOOLS OF THE PHILIPPINES

Year	Total	Kinder-garten	Elemen-tary	Second-ary	Special Vocational	Collegiate
1940-41.....	171,134	6,449	65,083	63,589	—	36,013
1945-46.....	109,712	3,169	21,703	63,750	10,395	10,695
1948-49.....	470,788	7,547	114,252	220,445	21,244	107,300
1949-50.....	535,349	7,496	118,804	244,608	28,867	135,574
1950-51.....	655,840	5,504	150,616	294,194	22,144	183,382

name of "junior colleges" while the others are variously known as colleges, institutes, or academies. In fact, from one point of view, it would hardly be amiss to classify almost all the higher education in the country, including the universities, as of junior college level since the school system involves only six years of elementary education and four years of secondary education. Thus enrollment in the universities and other collegiate institutions occurs at the close of the tenth year of formal education, equivalent to the beginning of the third year of the American four-year high school.

The junior colleges commonly confer the Associate's degree upon their graduates. The universities confer the Bachelor's degree after a four-year course of study and the Master's degree after an additional year. The oldest established university, the University of Santo Tomas, founded by the Dominican Order in 1611, twenty-five years earlier than Harvard Uni-

ers in the three classes of private schools distributed as follows:

Elementary.....	2,694
Secondary.....	6,260
Collegiate.....	5,705

Under postwar conditions the pressure for relaxation of standards has been strong. Those who are familiar with actual conditions in the country, including visiting American educators, feel that the quality of the different private institutions varies widely from some which maintain high standards of academic work to others, particularly of the proprietary group, which are little removed from the designation of "diploma mills." With his small staff of assistants and inspectors, Dr. Correon is making a serious effort to meet this situation and gradually to improve conditions.

General standards have been established for private schools and colleges. Special standards have been set up for curricula in special types of education such as normal, dental, legal, secre-

tarial, musical, nursing, and vocational. These have not been developed or imposed arbitrarily but have resulted from cooperative conferences with educational leaders in the fields concerned. Detailed lists of necessary equipment have been issued for such college fields as physics, chemistry, and zoology and for a wide variety of vocational fields including horticulture, farm mechanics, poultry and swine raising, wood working, automobile mechanics, tailoring, dressmaking, beauty culture, typewriting, stenography, and printing.

American readers, after their variety of experiences with university and secondary school standards, will doubtless be interested in reading the actual "General Standards for Schools and Colleges" as they have been formulated under the auspices of the Bureau of Private Schools in the Philippines. They read as follows:

I. ADMINISTRATION

Every school or college must have an efficient and stable administration. The owner or members of the governing board of the school corporation, the director or executive officer, and the members of the teaching staff should be men of high moral character and in full sympathy with the broad policies of the Government of the Republic of the Philippines. The owner and majority of the members of the governing board should be Filipino. Each school or college should have a full-time director or a dean possessed of adequate training and experience acceptable to the Department, who will direct the administration of the school and supervise classroom instruction. A full-time director or faculty member is here defined as one who has no other regular remunerative occupation which takes up more than four hours of his time daily and whose services are available during the entire time that the school operates.

Every institution should have a system of records showing conveniently and in detail the credentials, grades, accounts, and other data regarding the relation of students to the school.

II. FACULTY

An institution should have a competent faculty, organized for effective service and work-

ing under satisfactory conditions. In general the members of the teaching staff in the different levels of instruction should possess the following minimum qualifications:

1. In the elementary school, completion of the [two-year] normal school course or its equivalent to be determined by the Bureau of Private Schools.
2. In the secondary school, possession of the degrees of Bachelor of Science in Education, or Bachelor of Arts, Bachelor of Philosophy or equivalent to be determined by the Bureau of Private Schools.

3. In the collegiate department:

- (a) For cultural courses—possession of a graduate degree or its equivalent to be determined by the Bureau of Private Schools.

- (b) For professional and technical schools—possession of an acceptable professional degree and extensive experience in the profession or equivalent to be determined by the Bureau of Private Schools. A school or college will be judged in a large measure by the ratio which the number of teachers with sound training, scholarly achievement, and successful teaching experience bears to the total number of the teaching staff. In the evaluation of the instructional efficiency of a school or college great weight will be given to the performance of students in examinations to be conducted by the Department from time to time, and to results of the examination to be given by the different government examining boards and the Supreme Court. At least three-fourths ($\frac{3}{4}$) of the members of the teaching staff in a school or college, and the head of the department in a college should be on a full-time basis devoting their professional services to instruction, and to research or to other activities in behalf of the institution. Only Filipino and American citizens should be assigned to teach social science subjects.

The rates of salary of the instructional staff as submitted in B.P.S. Form 1 and approved by the Bureau of Private Schools shall be in force and salaries thus approved shall be paid promptly.

A teaching load of more than six forty-minute periods a day in the secondary schools and eighteen hours a week in the college shall be considered as endangering instructional efficiency.

In the interest of efficient instruction schools and colleges should have teachers on a permanent tenure. All teachers should be under contract. A teacher so contracted shall have permanent tenure and shall not be dismissed from the service except for cause or other justifiable reasons which, in every case, must be reported to and approved by the Bureau of Private Schools. No change should be made in the composition of the teaching staff without prior approval of the Bureau of Private Schools. A change in the

faculty, replacement, substitution or addition, should be submitted and approved by the Bureau of Private Schools. At the beginning of each school year, the names of the new members of the teaching force together with the usual data required of the faculty should be submitted for approval to the Bureau of Private Schools. The old staff of a school should be deemed to continue in their assignments unless otherwise changed.

III. ENTRANCE REQUIREMENTS

Admission of students from one grade or year to another, or transfer from one school to another in the elementary and secondary schools will be based upon valid credentials, or under certain conditions authorized by the Bureau of Private Schools. In colleges and universities admission will be based upon satisfactory completion of a certain number of prescribed units from the secondary school and passing an entrance examination to be conducted by the Bureau of Private Schools.

IV. CURRICULUM

The curriculum of each school or college shall be prescribed by the Department from time to time. The textbooks and supplementary readers to be used in the schools and colleges will be those approved by the Board on Textbooks or authorized by the Department or this Office.

V. LIBRARY

Each school or college should have a library which is alive, adequate, well-distributed, and

professionally administered with a collection bearing specifically upon the school or upon course taught. There should be an annual appropriation specifically to be devoted for the expansion of library facilities. All library fees collected should be devoted to the purchase of library books. The Bureau of Private Schools will prescribe what constitutes a basic school library, and from time to time will issue the titles of books that may be purchased. The school or college should subscribe to magazines and periodicals, including those for teachers, that have direct relation to the subjects or the courses authorized. For a new school which does not have adequate library facilities, or an old school which has lost part of its library, and for the school which may be found to have deficient library facilities after a survey, the school authorities should have available cash on hand which shall be spent for the building up or rehabilitation of the school library. This amount shall be spent at the request of the Bureau of Private Schools when the purchase of library books becomes practicable.

VI. LABORATORY FACILITIES

A school or college must have adequate laboratories for instruction in science including apparatus, equipment and other instructional aids to carry on efficient teaching. Laboratory equipment and instructional aids should increase and improve in proportion.

For the library field a further effort

TABLE III
MINIMUM LIBRARY STANDARDS FOR COLLEGIATE COURSES

Courses	Minimum number of cultural books ¹	Minimum number of professional books ²	Total required
Junior College of Liberal Arts (A.A. Course).....	2,000	—	2,000
Four-year Liberal Arts Course (A.B., etc.).....	3,000	—	3,000
Senior or Junior College of Education ³	—	1,500	1,500
Law.....	—	2,000	2,000
Medicine.....	—	2,500	2,500
Engineering, Architecture.....	750	750	1,500
Commercial (A.C.S.).....	1,000	500	1,500
Commercial (B.S.C.).....	1,000	1,000	2,000
Pharmacy.....	750	500	1,250
Home Economics (B.S.H.E.).....	2,500	500	2,500
Postgraduate Education (including undergraduate).....	—	3,000	3,000
Optometry.....	—	250	250
Nursing.....	500	300	800
Dentistry.....	750	500	1,250

¹ Including general reference works.

² Including professional reference works.

³ In the case of senior colleges, in addition to junior liberal arts books.

has been made to present more objective standards by the following classification of books:

For collegiate courses, minimum library standards are set up, (Table III) and supersede any lower requirements announced in previous minimum standards. Colleges now having approval for these courses will be given a reasonable length of time to meet such standards as have been raised and announced for the first time. The division of requirements between cultural and professional books is of course somewhat elastic, and many of the course requirements overlap in the sense that cultural books (but not usually professional books) may be used for more than one course. For colleges with a very large enrollment these minimum standards are considered to be entirely insufficient.

Says Dr. Correon,

The experiences of our Office during the past

three post-liberation years, as well as before the war, has shown that competition and rivalry among the private schools located in the same town or community, instead of promoting high standards, has led to the destruction of the competing schools and to the detriment of the educational welfare of the Nation. It is believed, therefore, that except for the very large towns and cities, new schools should be opened only in towns and communities where there are not already existing private or public schools offering the same or similar courses.

Dr. Correon has therefore requested that individuals or groups contemplating the opening of new private schools consult with his office before developing plans for organizing such new schools. By this means he has been able to discourage or prevent the establishment of some institutions of doubtful need or with insufficient backing.

PUBLICATIONS OF THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION¹

- I. THE NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY. Editorial Office, 4019 University High School Building, University of Michigan, Ann Arbor, Michigan
- II. Publications produced or sponsored by Committees or Subcommittees of the Commission on Research and Service
 - A. Unit Studies in American Problems—a new and challenging type of classroom text materials sponsored by the Committee on Experimental Units for the use of students in high school social studies classes. Charles E. Merrill Company, 400 S. Front Street, Columbus 15, Ohio.
 - 1. *Atomic Energy*, by WILL R. BURNETT
 - 2. *Conservation of Natural Resources*, by E. E. LORY and C. L. RHYNE
 - 3. *Housing in the United States*, by A. W. TROELSTRUP
 - 4. *Latin America and Its Future*, by RYLAND W. CRARY
 - 5. *Maps and Facts for World Understanding*
 - 6. *Why Taxes?* by EDWARD A. KRUG and ROBERT S. HARNACK
 - 7. *The Federal Government and You*
 - 8. *Youth and Jobs*, by DOUGLAS S. WARD
 - 9. *The Family and You*, by HENRY A. BOWMAN
 - B. Unit Studies for Better Learning—McGraw-Hill Book Company, New York.
 - 1. *Sprouting Your Wings*, by Bruce H. Guild
 - C. Pamphlets produced as outgrowths of committee studies and projects.
 - 1. A Study of Teacher Certification
 - 2. Developing the Health Education Program.
 - 3. Attacking Reading Problems in Secondary Schools.
 - 4. Developing Intergroup Relations in School and Community Life. ((25¢)
 - 5. Better Teaching Through Audio-Visual Materials. (10¢)
 - 6. Report of the Self-Study Survey of Guidance Practices in North Central Association High Schools for the School Year 1947-48 and Check List of Elements in a Minimum and an Extended Program of Guidance and Counseling. (10¢)
 - 7. Cooperation between Secondary Schools and Colleges—a report prepared for the Committee on High School-College Relations of the North Central Association by Manning M. Patillo, Jr., and Lorence Stout, University of Chicago. (15¢ for single copies; 5 or more mailed to one address 12¢ a copy).
 - 8. Better Colleges, Better Teachers—Macmillan Company, 60 Fifth Avenue, New York 11 New York.
 - D. Syllabus—*Functional Health Teaching*, by LYNDY M. WEBER. Published and distributed by Ginn and Company, Chicago
- III. Publications of the Commission on Secondary Schools. Distributed free to members of the Commission and member schools
 - A. *Policies, Regulations, and Criteria for the Approval of Secondary Schools*
 - B. *Handbook for State Chairmen and Reviewing Committees*
- IV. Publications of the Commission on Colleges and Universities. Available from the Office of the Secretary, Commission on Colleges and Universities, North Central Association, 5835 Kimbark Avenue, Chicago 37, Illinois.
 - A. *Revised Manual of Accrediting*, July, 1941. \$2.00 (unbound)
 - B. *Home Economics in Liberal Arts Colleges*, by CLARA M. BROWN. Published 1943, under joint sponsorship with the American Home Economics Association. \$1.00
 - C. Reprints from the NORTH CENTRAL ASSOCIATION QUARTERLY and other pamphlets available in limited numbers, free of charge
 - 1. "Statement of Policy Relative to the Accrediting of Higher Institutions, Operation of the Accrediting Procedure," July 1, 1941

¹ Unless otherwise indicated, address communications to the Secretary, North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, Charles W. Boardman, College of Education, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis.

2. Annual list of institutions of higher education accredited by the Commission on Colleges and Universities
 3. "Principles of Freedom in Teaching and Research." An extract from *The Evaluation of Higher Institutions*, Vol. II. *The Faculty*
 4. "Report of the Committee on Physical Education and Athletics," June, 1933
 5. "Conditions Surrounding the Offering of the Master's Degree," by E. B. STOUFFER October, 1937
 6. "Professional Education in Physical Education," by D. OBERTEUFFER, April, 1940
 7. "Nursing Education in Higher Institutions of the North Central Association," by LUCILE PETRY, April, 1941
 8. "Survey of Music Education in the North Central Association," by ALBERT RIEMENSCHNEIDER, October, 1941
 9. "The Institutional Purposes of Seventy-five North Central Colleges," by MELVIN W. HYDE and EMIL LEFFLER, January, 1942
 10. "The Offerings and Facilities in the Natural Sciences in the Liberal Arts Colleges," by ANTON J. CARLSON, October, 1943
 11. "Report of the Committee on Postwar Education," April, 1946
 12. "Faculty Status in Member Colleges and Universities of the North Central Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools, 1945-46," by JOHN H. RUSSEL and NORMAN BURNS, April, 1948
- V. Publications jointly sponsored by the North Central Association and other educational organizations or agencies
- A. *A Guide to the Evaluation of Educational Experiences in the Armed Services*. Published in 1944, in cooperation with the American Council on Education and eighteen other accrediting and standardizing educational associations. Order from the American Council on Education, 744 Jackson Place, Washington 6, D. C. \$5.00.
 - B. Publications of Cooperative Study of Secondary School Standards. Available from 744 Jackson Place, Washington, D. C.
 1. *How to Evaluate a Secondary School* (1940 Edition), paper, \$1.10
 2. *Evaluative Criteria* (1950 Edition), paper \$2.50; set of separate sections \$2.50 each
 3. *Educational Temperatures* (1940 Edition), \$1.25
- VI. *A History of the North Central Association*, by CALVIN O. DAVIS, 1945. Pp. xvii+286, \$2.00 plus postage.
- VII. "Know Your North Central Association."